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Leadership Development Programs (LDPs): Factors Impacting on Learning Transfer in Dubai Government Organisations

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Leadership Development Programs (LDPs): Factors Impacting on Learning Transfer in Dubai Government Organisations

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ABSTRACT

There is increasing recognition among organisations that investment in learning and development interventions is necessary for sustained organisational performance and excellence. Specifically, leadership development programs (LDPs) have seen a continued upward trend with both government and private sector continuing to invest in LDPs.

With the rapid economic development that the United Arab Emirates (UAE) has witnessed in the past three decades, leadership effectiveness is becoming increasingly significant for steering organisational success. Further, the vision of the UAE Vice-President, Prime Minister and the Ruler of Dubai, Sheikh Mohammed bin Rashid Al Maktoum places emphasis on hard work and continuous training to maintain the ability of the UAE to cope with changes locally and internationally. Accordingly, many organisations in the UAE, particularly Dubai government organisations, have begun to invest in leadership development. There is a serious concern about these investments in these programs because not all the knowledge and skills are transferred at workplace. Most studies argue that LDPs have applied the Kirkpatrick model in order to measure the outcome of their programs, but few studies have focussed on the various factors that impact on learning transfer. Thus, from a scholarly point of view, it is important to understand specific factors that might impinge on learning transfer. This present study aims to understand specific factors that might impinge on learning transfer in the context of Dubai government organisations. In addition, scholarly gaps are identified with regard to the constructs that can moderate the relationship between factors of ability, motivation and work environment that impact on transfer effort-performance expectations and performance-outcome expectations. This research specifically examines leadership styles and work environment factors.

The study applied a mixed method approach, which has exploratory/qualitative phases followed by a quantitative design with data collected through a questionnaire as a method of triangulation. The exploratory phase consisted of two phases: phase (1) included ten interviews with senior leaders from Dubai government organisations while phase (2) included ten interviews with training designers and key decision makers. The

findings from phase (1) show that a transformational leadership style emerged as the most dominant style when senior leaders of Dubai Government Organisations were asked about their conceptualisation of leadership. The results of phase (2) point to the significance of different factors that impact on learning transfer, with work environment noted as one of the major factors.

Phase (1) and phase (2) qualitative data informed the quantitative approach used in phase (3) used to examine the moderating impact of leadership styles and the work environment on the relationship between factors of ability and motivation that impact on learning transfer and transfer effort-performance expectations and performance-outcome expectations. The study in phase (3) used survey responses collected from 201 employees who had attended leadership development programs during the period 2012–2016. Nvivo 10 software was used to analyse the qualitative data while Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) was used to analyse the quantitative data.

This research makes an important contribution of an applied nature to the field of Business Administration with a focus on leadership development programs. Specifically, this research provides a unique and significant contextual contribution highlighting factors of ability, motivation and work environment that impact on learning transfer in LDPs within Dubai government organisations. What is also unique about the current study is that it is among the first to examine the moderating impact of leadership styles and work environment on the relationship between factors of ability and motivation that impact on learning transfer and transfer effort-performance expectations and performance-outcome expectations. In addition, no studies have yet examined multilevel factors that influence learning transfer in the context of the Dubai government organisations. This present study is the first to establish a direct relationship between ability, motivation and work environment factors and their impact on learning transfer measured as transfer effort-performance expectations and performance-outcome expectations. The findings of this study are important because it provides an impetus for organisations to give a thought to the factors influencing learning transfer that can play an important role in influencing the extent to which they feel motivated to transfer the skills and knowledge gained through LDPs.

The current research found that a supportive work environment could strengthen the ability and motivation of trainees to transfer the skill and knowledge learned at a workplace when the work environment was examined as a moderating factor. This further strengthens the need to provide an enabling work environment in order to reap the benefits of learning and development interventions such as LDPs. In addition, the empirical investigation from this research confirms the influnce of leadership styles on the relationship between factors of ability and motivation that impact on learning transfer and transfer effort-performance expectations and performance-outcome expectations. No previous studies have measured this relationship. This present study provides evidence that while transformational leadership styles do not have a moderating influence; transactional leadership styles weaken the relationship. This implies that even with the necessary ability and motivation and enabling work environment factors, a transactional leader can have a negative impact on the transfer effort-performance expectations and performance-outcome expectations. This is a significant finding pointing to the need for more studies to examine how different leadership styles affect the self and others.

Keywords: Leadership conceptualisations, leadership development programs, learning transfer, leadership styles, work environment factors

CERTIFICATION

I, Amira Amanalla Kamali, declare that this thesis is submitted in fulfilment of the requirements for the award of Doctorate of Business Administration (DBA), in the Faculty of Business, University of Wollongong in Dubai. This thesis is completely my own work uncles otherwise acknowledged or referenced. The document has not been submitted for qualifications at any other academic institution.

Amira Amanalla Kamali
20 March 2018

DEDICATION

This thesis is dedicated to the memory of my beloved father, Amanalla Kamali, who passed away ten years ago. My father instilled in me the importance of education and hard work. He also taught me that I should always be strong and never give up until I reach my target. I cannot stress enough the importance of his influence on the person I have become now and on what I have accomplished but I know that he would be very proud of me.

I would like to dedicate this thesis to my lovely mother as well, Maryam Mohammed Sharif, for her never-ending love. I will never forget your support and encouragement. You were always praying for me to finish my degree successfully.

Finally, this thesis is dedicated to my role model, my brother Dr. Tayeb Kamali, who always wanted me to be the second doctor in our family. Without your continuous support, I would never have reached this level. I am here today because of you. I will never forget your inspiration, positive energy and continuous support to accomplish this journey. I hope that I have made you proud.

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GLOSSARY OF ACRONYMS

ASTD	American Society for Training and Development
ATD	Association for Talent Development
α	Cronbach's Alpha
CIPP	Context, Input, Process, and Product
GLOBE	Global Leadership and Organisational Behaviour Effectiveness
H	Hypothesis
HRD	Human Resources Development
IBM	International Business Machines – Large Computer Company
KSAs	Knowledge Skills Abilities
LDPs	Leadership Development Programs
LTSI	Learning Transfer System Inventory
MBRSG	Mohammed Bin Rashid School of Government
MBRCLD	Mohammed Bin Rashid Centre for Leadership Development
MLQ	Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire
MSMR	Multi-Source-Multi-Rater
OLS	Ordinary Least Squares
ROI	Return On Investment
SPSS	Statistical Package for Social Sciences
UAE	United Arab Emirates
USA	United States of America
UK	United Kingdom
UOWD	University of Wollongong in Dubai
UOW	University of Wollongong
VIF	Variance inflation factor

LIST OF PUBLICATIONS

Kamali, A., Jayashree, P. & Lindsay, V. 2015, 'Leadership Development Programs: Investigating the impact of contextual and cultural factors on LDP effectiveness in United Arab Emirates', *International Journal of Management and Applied Research*, vol. 2, no. 4, pp. 172-186.

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Chapter 1: INTRODUCTION

Effective leadership is vital for development and the future of organisations (Glamuzina, 2015). Leadership has been described as a process, but most research and leadership theories look at individuals in order to gain an understanding of the behaviours necessary for effective leadership (Blake, Shepard and Mouton, 1964; House and Mitchell, 1974; Drath and Palus, 1994). Leadership is characteristically defined by the traits, abilities, and leaders' behaviours (Bass, 2008). Leadership studies have spanned across cultures, decades, and theoretic beliefs (Horner, 1997). In academia, it is considered to be a topic that has long excited the attention of many scholars (Lunenburg & Ornstein, 1996; Northouse, 2004; Yukl, 1998; Antonakis & House, 2002; Bass, 2008; Albawardy, 2010). According to Gill (2006), leadership is an essential factor that determines the success of implementing change in organisations. An organisation's long-term success is correlated strongly with its capability to build dynamic and effective leaders (Holt, 2011). Indeed, organisations cannot meet their goals without effective leadership (Bass, 1990 cited in Tirmizi, 2002).

There has been an increase in leadership development programs (LDPs) around the world and that is because organisations recognise the importance of leadership which influences the success or failure of an organisation (Woltring, Constantine, & Schwarte, 2003; Hernez-Broome & Hughes, 2004). Organisations with poor leadership will not be able to cope with changes in the environment (Emiliani, 2008). Leadership is spread through all parts of society (Gardner, 1990) but, in spite of this, there are insufficient effective leaders in organisations (Holt, 2011). The interest in leadership effectiveness has continued to grow over the past few decades (Carbone, 2009). Leadership Development Programs (LDPs) have become a priority for all sectors, especially for the public sector (Al Naqbi, 2010).

With the rapid economic development that the UAE has witnessed in the past three decades, leadership effectiveness is becoming increasingly significant for steering organisational success (Abdalla and Al-Homoud, 2001). Further, the vision of the UAE Vice-President, Prime Minister and the Ruler of Dubai, Sheikh Mohammed bin Rashid

Al Maktoum places emphasis on hard work and continuous training to maintain the ability of the UAE to cope with changes locally and internationally (Dubai Strategic Plan, 2015). Accordingly, many organisations in the UAE have begun to invest in leadership development programs (Abbas and Yaqoob, 2009; Madsen, 2010; Mameli, 2013; Marmenout and Lirio, 2014). However, there are no attempts to conduct a structured evaluation to assess whether LDPs are having the desired outcomes. Most studies on the effectiveness of training have focused on Kirkpatrick's levels of training; particularly levels one (reaction) and two (learning) (Carbone, 2009). There has been little research to examine behaviour change (level three) through transfer of learning, especially research into the factors that impact on this learning transfer (Homklin, Takahashi, & Techakanont, 2014). It is not possible to understand why learning transfer is not successful without understanding the factors that influence learning transfer. Many studies agree that the effectiveness of training programs is measured by the trainee's ability and motivation to transfer the knowledge and skills learned on the job (Ford & Quinones, 1992; Roe, 1997; Tonhauser & Buker, 2016). Research clearly reveals that learning transfer is complex and is associated with several factors (Baldwin, & Ford, 1988; Rouiller & Goldstein, 1993; Burke & Hutchins, 2007). Investments in training measures can only be considered effective if the skills and knowledge learned in training programs can be practiced successfully in the workplace (Tonhauser & Buker, 2016).

The present study includes three distinct phases; each with a specific focus: 1) to identify the conceptualisation of leadership and what makes an effective leader in Dubai government organisations and 2) to examine the expected outcomes from LDPs along with identification of the contents of LDPs as implemented in Dubai government organisations. 3) To examine the moderating influence of leadership styles and work environment on the relationship between ability, motivation, work environment and transfer effort-performance expectations and performance-outcome expectations.

This study uses a mixed methodology to examine the factors affecting learning transfer in LDPs conducted in Dubai government organisations. The benefits of this research are that it provides a unique and significant contextual contribution highlighting factors affecting learning transfer in LDPs that are conducted in Dubai government

organisations. In addition, it contributes to knowledge by formalizing a framework that identifies the factors to be considered in LDPs to enhance the learning transfer. Furthermore, the study offers several significant implications to researchers seeking to elucidate the factors influencing why and how participants of LDPs effectively transfer newly learned skills in the workplace. Specifically, the study examines whether leadership styles and work environment moderate the relationship between ability, motivation, work environment and transfer effort-performance expectations and performance-outcome expectations.

1.1 Leadership conceptualisations

Leadership is conceptualised differently across cultures, Dickson et al. (2012) defined leadership as an ability that is enacted differently across cultures, and as a process that is created and developed differently across cultures. The GLOBE Project, created by a large multinational team of leadership researchers, leadership intentionally defined leadership broadly because of the recognition of how the evaluative and semantic interpretation and the cognitive prototypes that define leadership are likely to be different across cultures (e.g. Hanges, Lord, & Dickson, 2000; Javidan, Dorfman, de Luque & House, 2006; Clark et Al., 2016).

There have been several attempts to understand how leadership conceptualisations differ across cultures (Lonner, 1980; Hofstede, 1983; Bass, 1997; House et al., 2002). In these studies, the focus was on identifying the characteristics of leadership that are universal and those that are country specific. Bass (1997) explained the meaning of universally applicable conceptualisations in his study. Bass added that some universal concepts could be influenced by country specific values, cognitive schemas, or behaviours. This shows how leadership can be enacted differently across specific culture. For example, the study by Offermann and Hellmann (1997) found that managers from countries with low power distance values tended to be more communicative and more approachable than managers from countries with high power distance values. In addition, Echols and Tsai (2005) argue that organisations are becoming increasingly global in terms of with whom they interact and where they work.

1.1 .1 Conceptualisation of leadership in different cultures

"The conceptualisation of leadership is different across cultures and it is not sufficient to define leadership within a single cultural context. For example, Sidani (2008) argues that Ibn Khaldun (1332-1406) presented a different understanding of leadership conceptualisation that has applicability in different era and culture, specifically non-Western societies. Ibn Khaldun also noted that Western leadership perspective applies better in individualistic societies. Also, House (1995) highlights that all commonly known leadership theories are based on research done in North America. Therefore, the empirical evidence is commonly generated from individualistic societies not collectivistic societies (House, 1995; Den Hartog et al., 1999).

According to many scholars (e.g. Phillip et al., 2006; Day, 2000; Ladegard & Gjerde, 2014) who declare, that effective leadership within organisations is frequently observed as the foundation for organisational performance and growth and an organisation that lacks strong leadership is expected to fail to meet performance expectations. It is almost axiomatic to say that leadership is defined differently across cultures (Dickson et al., 2012). For example, Yukl (1998) considers leadership as arbitrary and very subjective. Bass (2008) argues that the most common definitions used are concentrated on the following areas: the leader as a person, the behaviour of a leader, the leader's effects, and the communication process between the leader and subordinates. On the other hand, Northouse (2010, p. 3) defines leadership as a process whereby an individual influences a group of individuals to achieve a common goal.

The GLOBE project, led by different researchers, put a lot of effort into defining the leadership construct across cultures (House et al., 2002). The study, with more than 180 researchers, was conducted across 62 societies. Although defining a construct may seem an easy thing to do, after a very long discussion, they were able to agree to the following definition of leadership: ''the ability of an individual to influence, motivate, and enable others to contribute toward the effectiveness and success of the organisations of which they are members.'' There was also another definition of leadership by Chemers (2002). Leadership is defined as ''a process of social influence in which one person is able to enlist the aid and support of others in the accomplishment of a common task'' (p. 1). There is an agreement among many scholars (e.g. Atwater,

Waldman, Ostroff, Robie, & Johnson, 2005; Atwater, Wang, Smither, & Fleenor, 2009; Gentry, & Dawson, 2010) that national culture affects the value of certain elements of leadership development. For example, Ali (1995) declared that most organisations in Arab countries develop their curricula and programs by copying Western theories and models. These theories have been developed based on research studies conducted for western countries and may not be applicable in Arab countries where Muslims get their cultural roots and practices from Islam (ElKaleh & Samier, 2013). Given the global reach of leadership development, it is necessary to understand the requirements of the participants of LDPs (Gentry et al., 2014). The majority of the insights and knowledge that make up the content of LDPs originated in research in the West, particularly in the United States. However, organisational research needs to take into account that people have different cultural backgrounds (Rousseau & Fried, 2001).

A number of previous studies have reflected on leadership styles in the Arab world (Muna, 1980; Al-Jafary and Hollingsworth, 1983; Ali et al., 1995; Yousef, 2000), with a key finding being that the Arab culture nurtures consultative and participative styles. According to Gentry and Sparks (2012), organisations need to remain updated on styles of leadership that are considered more effective in these global environments. Previous research on leadership has examined the characteristics that individuals consider to be consistent with their beliefs (i.e., prototypes or schemas) and that these beliefs, which are shared by individuals within a culture, can be seen as contributing to or inhibiting effective leadership (Dorfman et al., 2004). Much research has uncovered the roles, skills, activities, and competencies that are required for leaders to be successful (e.g., Luthans 1988; Kraut et al., 1989; Gentry et al., 2008a; Sparks and Gentry 2008).

1.2 Leadership development programs (LDPs)

Leadership development programs (LDPs) "structured, off-the-job events that bring individuals together for shared learning and development experiences" (McCauley, 2008, p. 24). Leadership development programs are considered one of the vital programs in many large organisations (Packard & Jones, 2015). The most important aspect in contemporary leadership development programs is how managers can adopt leadership attributes and efficiently use them to accomplish their roles and

responsibilities and achieve organisational success (Hamilton and Cynthia, 2005). The process of leadership development aims to develop leaders and to transfer organisational cultures and values that ultimately results in all the organisation's members working together to achieve the objectives of the organisation (Hamilton & Cynthia, 2005). Leadership development is intended to develop managerial skills at all levels, whether tactical, operational, strategic or personal (Abbas & Yaqoob, 2009). However, LDPs are struggling to build effective leaders who have the ability to lead in a changing marketplace (Fulmer & Goldsmith, 2001; Goleman, Boyatzis, & McKee, 2002). Consequently, there is a lot of pressure for LDPs to improve and provide emerging leaders with the training needed to become effective leaders (Holt, 2011).

Leadership development programs are increasingly being pursued by many organisations around the world (Mathafena, 2007). According to Avolio and Hannah (2009), the development of leaders is an expressed goal in most organisations. Such organisations value the importance of training future leaders and they understand the value of ongoing and continuous leadership development programs that help talented managers become real leaders (Thach & Heinselman, 2000; Day, 2000; Day et al., 2014). In addition, Riggio (2008, p. 390) asserts that such programs "need to fit the requirements of both the organisations and the leaders undergoing development. They need to be theory-driven, use proven methods, be integrated into ongoing organisational processes, and be evaluated for effectiveness and substantial."

Many organisations are spending large amounts of money, which frequently exceeds between 2 per cent and 2.5 per cent of their payroll (ASTD, 2005), on training. This applies in the USA, where several billions of dollars are spent on training annually. The investment in leadership development programs in the United States has doubled over the past 15 years to become a $14 billion industry (Kaiser & Curphy, 2013), and in other countries the investment is also significant. Lepak and Snell (1999) argue that one of the main reasons that organisations invest in training and development of employees is to improve and protect their human capital. Indeed, a company may select individuals as potential leaders, but few of them are ready to be successful leaders (Sogunro, 1997). Cummings et al. (2008) argue that LDPs are not a new intervention and through a systematic analysis found that leadership development programs lead to considerable

improvements in leaders' behaviour, skills and practices. There are increasingly progressive organisations (e.g. Hewlett Packard and Google) that continually invest significant resources in order to develop effective leaders (Thach & Heinselman, 2000). The development of leaders is an expressed goal in most organisations, and leadership development plays an important role in the success of organisations (Avolio & Hannah, 2009). Leadership development programs must be well developed and appropriately implemented in order to have the desired outcomes (Day et al., 2014). Practitioners and training specialists have always sought to develop methods to improve the effectiveness of training program (Çifci, 2014). According to Sørensen (2017), some training programs fail to produce any learning. Learning, which is the process of acquiring new skills and behaviours because of practice, experience, or study, is considered a desirable outcome of training (Salas et al. 2012). Measuring the Return On Investment (ROI) is one of the crucial issues in learning and development, specifically in the Human Resources Development (HRD) field. Return on investment (ROI) is a ubiquitous financial calculation used throughout business (Avolio et al., 2010). Although there are a lot of investments in developing leaders, few have focused on determining whether these investments were worthwhile. According to Avolio et al. (2003), it has been estimated that only 10% to 20% of organisations investing in leadership development ever actually measure the effectiveness of LDPs on anything approximating performance outcomes (Avolio et al., 2003).

The effectiveness of a training program is measured by the trainee's motivation and ability to transfer learning to the workplace (Holton, 2000). Learning transfer is defined as an effective application by learners and is the transfer of the skills learned in a training program to the workplace (Broad and Newstrom, 1992). Unfortunately, in the field of leadership development programs the work of learning transfer has been neglected (Sørensen, 2017). Although training designers are aware of the importance of LDPs and transfer of learning outcomes to the work environment, not much research has evaluated the results of such programs (Day, 2001; Russon and Reinelt, 2004). Although much investment is being made in LDPs, no formal attempt has been made to understand learning transfer as an outcome of LDPs. Previous studies on the evaluation of training have commonly focused on Kirkpatrick's levels of training and on the extent to which organisations conduct evaluations at each of the four levels: reaction, learning, behaviour and results (Saks & Burke, 2012). For instance, it is frequently reported that

many organisations evaluate reactions and learning but few evaluate behaviour and results criteria (Blanchard et al., 2000; Sitzmann et al., 2008; Hughes & Campbell, 2009). In addition, many factors (such as ability, motivation and work environment) that affect learning transfer are not considered in the context of Dubai government organisations. Key decision makers and training designers need to understand the factors influencing the transfer of learning and they must realize how these factors can be interpreted in developing and delivering LDPs so as to enhancing learning transfer.

1.3 The application of leadership theories to LDPs

Interest in leadership development is strong; particularly by practitioners (Day, 2000). A literature review conducted in 1948, for example, found 124 books, articles, and abstracts on leadership (Stogdill, 1948); while a later study found 188 articles on leadership, in just one journal, the Leadership Quarterly, (during the period 1990-1999) (Bass & Bass, 2008). This large body of research collated by Stodgill and others, has led to over 65 different theories and approaches to conceptualizing and classifying leadership (Mumford, 2000). The **l**eadership theories comprise of trait, behavioural, contingency, situational, transformational (Burns, 1978), adaptive (Heifitz, 1998) and integrative leadership models (Gardner, Avolia, Luthans, May & Walumbwa, 2005). According to Bass and Stogdill, prior to the 1900s, the notion of leadership centred on Great Man theories that claimed great leaders are born, not made. The authors suggest that the trait approach emerged from the idea of a "Great Man" in the 1940s. Then, between 1940 and 1960, behavioural theories emerged that were developed through studies at the Ohio State University and University of Michigan and focused on the way of doing things. Between the late 1960s and the early 1980s, the contingency-situational approach dominated much of the leadership research (Fiedler, 1964; Hersey and Blanchard, 1969). These theories focused on the significance of situational factors in leadership. Hersey and Blanchard (1969) explained that situational leadership theory is one type of contingency theory and proposes that leaders must adapt their leadership style in accordance with varied situations. Four leadership styles were identified (telling/directing, selling/coaching, participating/supporting, and delegating/observing) that must be applied in accordance with the employee maturity level. Downton (1973)

introduced the theory of transformational leadership, further popularised by Burns in 1978, which describes leadership as a process that transforms organisations and people.

It is clear from the literature that just as leadership theories have developed over time, the concept of leadership development programs in organisations has also appeared (Carbone, 2009). For example, the idea of leadership was centred on Great-Man theories (Judge et al., 2002), which suggested that great leaders are born, not made. However, the current and prevailing belief is that leadership can be learned (McCauley et al., 1998; Northouse, 2006) and that most people are able to act as a leader (Northouse, 2006). The idea that leadership can be taught is an essential one, especially when considering the existence of LDPs. If leadership could not be learned, these LDPs would not add value (Carbone, 2009).

1.4 Measuring the effectiveness of LDPs

Training evaluation is a systematic process of collecting data in an effort to determine the effectiveness of a training program and to make decisions about training (Brown & Gerhardt, 2002; Brown & Sitzmann, 2011). The most common and recognized model of training evaluation is Kirkpatrick's (1994) model of training evaluation criteria (Saks & Burke, 2012).

There have been many attempts to develop instruments to evaluate the effectiveness of LDPs (e.g. Collins & Holton, 2004; Fullard, 2006; Black & Earnest, 2009; Carbone 2009; Gentry et al., 2014; Leskiw & Singh, 2007). For example, Leskiw and Singh (2007) argue that a successful leadership development program should have an effective evaluation system that measures the effectiveness of the program in fulfilling the desired outcome. The evaluation must focus on the impact that LDPs have on an organisation's capability to function more strategically because of its leadership ability (Ready & Conger, 2003). The final stage in any training program usually assesses the effectiveness of the training program (Buckley & Caple, 2004). According to Saks and Burke (2012), previous studies on training evaluation have mainly focused on Kirkpatrick's levels of training as the main conceptual framework for evaluating the training effectiveness. However, Holton (2000) declared that the effectiveness of a training program is measured by the trainee's motivation to transfer learning at the

workplace. In addition, a training program can only be considered effective if the skills and knowledge learned in the training program can be transferred successfully on the job (Tonhauser & Buker, 2016). Many organisations have a serious concern about the investment that has been made in their training programs because not all the skills and knowledge learned during training are transferred to workplace (Homklin, 2014). This means that employees may not have the chance to improve their performance in order to meet organisational requirements. LDPs should be designed in a way that the required skills learned during the program are transferred effectively on the job. Thus, other scholars (Baldwin & Ford, 1988; Rouiller & Goldstein, 1993; Salas et al., 2012) have focused on the factors that impact on learning transfer. Most research on the effectiveness of training programs has focused on Kirkpatrick's levels of training; precisely, levels one (reaction) and two (learning) (Homklin, 2014). However, little research has investigated level three (behaviour change) through learning transfer, particularly which factors have an impact on behaviour change.

Furthermore, other researchers (Holton et al., 2003; Khasawneh et al., 2006; Bates, Holton, Hatala, 2012; Saks & Burke, 2012; Hutchins et al., 2013) argue about using the Learning Transfer System Inventory (LTSI) framework to measure the effectiveness of training programs. The LTSI framework can be used as an evaluative tool after training programs in order to obtain additional information about the effectiveness of training programs (Bates et al., 2012). In addition, many studies of leadership development programs have used LTSI to measure the learning transfer (Hutchins et al., 2013; Jackson & Bushe, 2007; Kirwan & Birchall, 2006; Austin et al., 2006). According to Hutchins et al., (2013) LTSI can be one of the tools to measure the learning transfer after completing LDPs.

1.5 LDPs and the factors that impact on learning transfer

Leadership development programs are struggling to create effective and dynamic leaders who are able to lead in a changing marketplace (Fulmer & Goldsmith, 2001; Goleman, Boyatzis, & McKee, 2002). According to Day et al. (2014), the ultimate target of most leadership development programs is to improve the effectiveness of a leader. However, Hooijberg and Choi (2000) argue that perceptions of effective

leadership vary according to who is being asked (e.g. peers, subordinates, focal managers, or bosses). For example, when considering leadership effectiveness from the perspective of subordinates and peers, the role of a facilitator was seen as an important component of effectiveness but focal managers and bosses had different perceptions. This finding provides potentially vital implications to the leadership development process because it supports the idea that the perception of leadership effectiveness may be in the eye of the beholder (Hooijberg & Choi, 2000). There are many studies (Mathafena, 2007; Carbone, 2009; Al Suwaidi, 2012; Bond, 2013) arguing about the importance of LDPs in many parts of the world. Some scholars looked at the factors that impact on learning transfer (Rouiller & Goldstein, 1993; Bunch, 2001; Salas et al., 2012, Homklin et al., 2014). Research on training transfer remains one of the more widespread areas in the literature of human resource development and training (Hutchins et al., 2013). The fundamental assumption of training transfer, learning transfer, or just transfer, is that an individual's performance is improved through well-defined training programs (Burke & Hutchins 2007). Broad and Newstrom (1992) described learning transfer as an effective and continuing application by learners and the transfer of the acquired knowledge and skills in training program at the workplace. According to Holton (2005) who argues that the role of training transfer research is to formulate and recognize the process of learning and learning transfer in both individual and organisational contexts.

One of the tools used to measure the factors that impact on learning transfer is the Learning Transfer System Inventory (LTSI), which was developed by Holton, Bates, and Ruona (2000). The LTSI is a diagnostic assessment of 16 training specific and general training factors grounded in the existing transfer literature. The conceptual framework for the LTSI describes learning transfer as a function of four elements (secondary elements, ability factors, motivation factors, and work environment factors) which are measured using 16 constructs. Ability factors refer to those elements that allow trainees to transfer learning effectively and exist in the training (Holton et al., 2000). Another factor that affects learning transfer is motivation and it refers to the intensity, direction, and persistence of effort to obtain new skills and knowledge from training programs and practise what is learned in workplace (Noe, 1986; Salas & Cannon-Bowers, 2001). According to Baldwin and Ford (1988), the work environment

is one of the major factors that can affect the application of learning to the workplace. The work environment includes supervisory support, peer support and openness to change (Khasawneh, 2004).

Another study by Leskiw and Singh (2007) also mentions other factors that are important to consider for an effective LDP. For example, needs assessment, audience selection, the design of an appropriate infrastructure to support the initiative, learning system, reward success and improve deficiencies, and an evaluation system. As leadership development becomes prevalent around the world, it is very important to understand the expectations of leadership development programs and the needs of participants and to consider whether the LDP has achieved its stated objectives (Gentry et al., 2014). However, Kuchinke (2000) argue that many organisations do not apply the full scope of LDPs and, therefore, may not reach the desired outcomes.

1.6 Leadership styles and metacognition

Leadership styles represent essential aspect of leadership (Muhammad et al., 2009). Leadership style can be defined as patterns of emphases, indexed by the intensity of particular leadership attitude or behaviour, which a leader places on the different leadership situations (Mumford et al., 2000; Casimir, 2001; Andersen, 2008). Moreover, many studies (Mumford, 2000; Day & Halpin, 2004) have recently claimed that leadership includes a complex mix of behavioural, cognitive, and social skills that may develop at different rates and involve different learning experiences. Many scholars (Steane & Hua, 2002; Limsila & Ogulana, 2008; Muenjohn, 2009) have used the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire MLQ (5X-Short Form) in order to measure leadership styles. This instrument measures the full range of leadership styles and includes Transformational Leadership, Transactional Leadership and Laissez-Faire Leadership (Avolio et al., 1999). Leadership development programs commonly focus on developing leadership skills that may require potential leader's proactive steps, making the leader's own interest and motivation to apply the skills learned at workplace (Chan & Drasgow, 2001).

However, this present study not only considers the dominate leadership styles of the participants who completed LDPs, but also looks at leadership styles as an indicator of

metacognition. Metacognition is an important concept in cognitive theory and is defined as a learner's awareness of his or her own process of learning (Lord & Hall, 2005). Metacognitive skills are essential for leaders who already have developed basic leadership skills (Lord & Hall, 2005). Learners who have self-awareness of their own process of learning are able to monitor and evaluate their learning progress (Winn & Snyder, 1996). For example, in the leadership domain, metacognition skills may address self-awareness and monitoring ability to apply the skills and knowledge learned on the job (Mumford et al., 2000; Day, Schleicher, Unckless, & Hiller, 2002). According to Ruggieri et al. (2013), a transformational leadership style is expected to be more effective in enhancing the metacognitive skills. Transformational leaders ensure that their behaviour encourages personal growth, which will help them become more aware of their abilities (Ruggieri et al., 2013). Therefore, this study examines the influence of leadership styles on the relationship between ability, motivation and work environment and transfer effort-performance expectations and performance-outcome expectations.

1.7 Work environment

Previous research shows that the work environment is one of the most important factors that impacts on the process of learning transfer (Quinones & Ford, 1995; Gaudine & Saks 2004; Bates & Khasawneh 2005; Hawley & Barnard 2005; Burke & Hutchins 2007). The work environment consists of elements such as supervisory support, peer support and resistance or openness to change (Holton et al., 2000). According to Tracey et al. (1995), employees are more likely to have the ability and motivation to apply the new skills learned to the workplace when they have a supportive work environment and it is expected that employees' performance will increase (Holton et al., 2000). Accordingly, this study looks at how the work environment moderates the relationship between factors of ability and motivation that impact on learning transfer and transfer effort-performance expectations and performance-outcome expectations.

1.8 Significance of the study

The importance of this study comes from the investments that are being made in leadership development programs in many organisations (Kaiser & Curphy, 2013). In the UAE context, particularly in Dubai government organisations, there is much

investment in training and development, especially in LDPs (Abbas & Yaqoob, 2009). There is a serious concern about the investment in LDP programs because not all the knowledge and skills are transferred to the workplace (Homklin, 2014). These LDPs can only be considered effective if the trainee's transfer their skills learned successfully (Tonhauser & Buker, 2016).

In this context, this study first looks at the conceptualisation of effective leadership in Dubai government organisations. The literature shows that leadership is conceptualised differently across cultures so this study determines what makes an effective leader in Dubai government organisations. Secondly, the study identifies the expected outcome of LDPs and the factors that have an impact on learning transfer among employees attending LDPs in Dubai government organisations; specifically, the factors ability, motivation and work environment.

Although the need for effective leadership development programs has been recognized by many researchers, a systematic and holistic approach to examine learning transfer is limited, especially in new regional contexts such as Dubai government organisations, which have seen increasing investments in LDPs. Finally, the study also explores the moderating effect of leadership styles and work environment on the relationship between ability, motivation, work environment and transfer effort-performance expectations and performance-outcome expectations.

This research provides a unique and significant contribution that highlights factors impacting on learning transfer in LDPs that are conducted in Dubai government organisations and how participants of LDPs effectively transfer the newly skills learned to the workplace.

1.9 Research gaps

Many scholars (e.g. Day, 2000; Abdalla & Al-Homoud, 2001; Abbas & Yaqoob, 2009; Holt, 2012; Day et al., 2014; Gentry et al., 2014) argue that LDPs play an important role in organisations. They argue that LDPs have become important as a means of improving managerial skills at all levels, whether tactical, operational, strategic or personal. Organisations spend large sums of money in LDPs annually (Gibler, Carter &

Goldsmith, 2000). Many organisations consider it necessary to develop effective leaders and a considerable number import successful leadership development programs (LDPs) from other countries. Organisations usually require their employees to participate in training programs and to use their newly acquired skills in the workplace (Dirani, 2017). Thus, organisations are spending significant amounts of money and time on training programs to improve the ability and skills of their employees (Blume, Ford, Baldwin, & Huang, 2010). Unfortunately, many organisations are failing to gain maximum advantage from leadership development programs (Hernez-Broome & Hughes, 2004) because the new skills learned in training programs are not practiced in the workplace.
Many studies (Holton et al., 2000; Leskiw & Singh, 2007; McCauley, 2008) discuss different factors than can affect the effectiveness of training. For example, Leskiw and Singh (2007) discuss the factors that must be considered for effective LDPs. For instance, they consider needs assessment, audience selection, design of an appropriate infrastructure to support the initiative, the learning system and the reward system. In addition, Holton et al. (2000) identify several factors that can have an impact on learning transfer. They discuss ability (content validity, opportunity to use transfer design, and personal capacity for transfer), motivation (motivation to transfer) and work environment (supervisor and peer support, and openness to change).

Learning transfer is considered an important outcome of LDPs and conceptual models to measure transfer are limited. One of the most comprehensive measures being provided by Holton et al. (2000) is the Learning Transfer System Inventory (LTSI) which was used for the purposes of the present study in a new context; this being Dubai government organisations. Tannenbaum and Yukl (1992), define learning transfer as the degree to which trainees effectively transfer the skills learned in training program to their work.

Currently, organisations are facing difficulties in applying the skills and knowledge learned at the workplace (Holton et al., 2000). There is a serious concern about the investment that is being made in training programs because not all skills learned are transferred to the workplace (Homklin, 2014). Most of the studies (Carbone, 2009; Nicolaidou & Petridou, 2011) claim that LDPs have applied the Kirkpatrick model in order to measure the outcome of the LDPs, but few studies (Khasawneh, 2004; Hutchins

et al., 2013; Khasawneh et al., 2006; Salas et al., 2012) have focussed on the different factors that impact on learning transfer. It is vital to understand the factors that might have an impact on learning transfer (Day & Goldstone, 2012; Saks & Burke, 2012; Hutchins et al. 2013).

According to Bass (1995), transformational leadership is one of the most popular approaches to leadership. Still, further empirical investigation is required in order to determine the moderating effect of leadership styles. The leaders who completed LDPs are expected to have the ability and motivation to apply the skills and knowledge learned at the workplace (Mumford et al., 2000; Kuhn & Dean, 2004; Hanna, 2007). However, no attempt has been made to understand the impact of the moderating effect of leadership styles that might influence the relationship between various factors and learning transfer.

In addition, many studies (Ford & Quinones, 1992; Quinones & Ford, 1995; Bates & Khasawneh, 2005; Burke & Hutchins, 2007; Hutchins et al., 2013) suggest that the work environment is one of the most important factors influencing the process of learning transfer. Accordingly, it is also necessary to examine the moderating impact of the work environment on the relationship between factors of ability and motivation that impact on learning transfer and transfer effort-performance expectations and performance-outcome expectations.

1.10 Research questions

The study answers the following research questions:

1. What are the conceptualisations of effective leadership in Dubai government organisations?
2. What are the expected outcomes of LDPs in Dubai government organisations?
3. Do leadership styles and work environment moderate the relationship between factors of ability and motivation that affect learning transfer and transfer effort-performance expectations and performance-outcome expectations?

The following conceptual definitions are used through the research:

> **Leadership** "*is the ability of an individual to influence, motivate, and enable others to contribute toward the effectiveness and success of the organisation"* (House, Hanges, Ruiz-Quintanilla, Dorfman, Javidan, Dickson, Gupta, Brenk, Konrad, & Sabdin, 1999, p. 184).
>
> **Leadership development programs (LDPs),** "*structured, off-the-job events that bring individuals together for shared learning and development experiences*" (McCauley, 2008, p. 24).
>
> **Learning transfer** *"is an effective and continuing application by learners and the transfer of the skills and knowledge gained in the training program to their jobs"* (Broad & Newstrom, 1992).

1.11 Organisation of the thesis

This thesis is divided into ten chapters, chapter 1 is the introduction where there is an overview of the rationale for the study. This is followed by the significance of the study, comments on the research gap and an explanation of the research questions.

Chapter 2 explains the context of the study by providing information about the background, history and heritage of the UAE. In addition, it talks about LDPs in Dubai government organisations**.**

Chapter 3 is a literature review that focuses on leadership conceptualisations and LDPs. It discusses the relevant literature, which includes recent studies on leadership development programs and, particularly, the factors that influence learning transfer.

Chapter 4 deals with the research design, strategy and methodology used in this study for the qualitative phases. Furthermore, it describes the justification of the methodology selected and the data collection method. In addition, the sampling, validity and reliability testing are outlined.

Chapter 5 is the data analysis, findings and discussion of the qualitative phases. The chapter is divided in two parts: Part (1) is phase (1) which is about the conceptualisation of leadership and what makes an effective leader, Part (2) is phase (2), which is about the expected outcomes of LDPs and the factors that have an impact on learning transfer.

Chapter 6 is about the theoretical framework of the study. The conceptual rationale for the hypotheses is presented by testing the proposed relationships between the constructs.

Chapter 7 describes the research design, strategy and methodology used for the quantitative phase. Besides, this chapter justifies the methodology used and the data collection method. The sampling, validity and reliability testing are also outlined.

Chapter 8 presents the findings and results of the collected data from the quantitative phase. Moreover, this chapter offers the findings of the study from the data analysis.

Chapter 9 is the discussion for the quantitative phase where the key findings are presented by linking them with the results of the qualitative phases. In addition, this chapter discusses the main results and explains the contribution and significance of the findings.

Chapter 10 is an overview of the research, demonstrates the practical and theoretical contributions and considers the limitations of this research. The chapter makes recommendation for future research.

Chapter 2: THE CONTEXT

This chapter establishes the context of the study by illustrating the background of the UAE, its history and heritage. This chapter also demonstrates the importance of leadership development programs (LDPs), particularly in Dubai government organisations. In addition, culture and leadership is discussed by linking the culture of the United Arab Emirates (UAE) with Hofstede dimensions and the GLOBE project.

2.1 UAE context

The United Arab Emirates (UAE) is a federal state that was established on the 2nd of December 1971. It includes seven emirates: Abu Dhabi, Dubai, Ajman, Sharjah, Ras Al Khaimah, Um Al Quwain, and Fujairah (Rehman, 2008). The United Arab Emirates have a high growth economy that is speedily diversifying into areas of tourism, logistics, manufacturing, banking and finance (Randeree & Chaudhry, 2012). The United Arab Emirates is a multicultural country with organisations being comprised of employees from the Middle East, Australia, Europe, North America, China, India, and Africa (Butler, 2009). Twenty per cent of the population of the country is Emirati, 30 per cent is Indian, 15 per cent is Iranian, and 15 per cent is Pakistani. The demography is changing as the government drives towards population growth with more Chinese and Indians being hired. The promotion of leadership skills development is a major part of the government's business development strategy (Butler, 2009).

2.2 History and heritage of the UAE

The United Arab Emirates has a rich history dating back thousands of years. Therefore, the UAE is concerned with documenting and preserving the culture and heritage of the UAE for the next generations (al-Suwaidi, 2011). The President of the UAE, H. H. Sheikh Khalifa bin Zayed Al Nahyan, has a great interest in preserving the heritage of the UAE among the youth through education (Schneider, 2012). The president has also urged the cultural, educational and academic institutions to keep up the good work to increase awareness in the youth of their culture and heritage (eGovernment, 2012). The UAE is a constitutional federation of seven emirates with a political system based on sheikdoms. The UAE is located on the eastern side of the Arabian Peninsula (Al-

Oraimi, 2004). Sheikh Zayed bin Sultan Al Nahyan, the former ruler of the Emirate of Abu Dhabi, took the initiative of calling for a federation of the seven Emirates (eGovernment, 2012). The other emirates (Sharjah, Dubai, Ras Al Khaimah, Ajman, Fujairah and Umm Al Quwain) believed that it was in their interest to unite as a single state and did so on the 2nd December, 1971 when the UAE was formally announced as a sovereign entity (al-Suwaidi, 2011). Sheikh Zayed was selected as President and Sheikh Rashid bin Saeed Al Maktoum, as the Vice President of the country (eGovernment, 2012). Each emirate has a local government involving various government departments and retains significant financial autonomy (Suliman, 2006, p. 60).

2.3 LDPs in Dubai context

Dubai has a strategic location and is the biggest re-exporting centre in the Middle East. Dubai has become a key site for numerous profitable industries and activities such as conferences, exhibitions, tourism, business and industrial consulting, and information and communications technology. In 2013, the UAE won the right to host the World Expo in Dubai in 2020. The World Expo, which will be running for six months, it is expected to attract 25 million visitors from many nations, international organisations and businesses. The theme of Dubai's World Expo is 'Connecting Minds, Creating the Future'. Through this theme, Expo 2020 Dubai will serve as a catalyst, which connects minds from around the world and inspires participants to mobilise around shared challenges. This means Dubai government organisations should consider building the right leaders for this important event (Al Suwaidi, 2012).

According to the Strategic Plan for the Emirate of Dubai 2015, the vision of His Highness Sheikh Mohammed bin Rashid Al Maktoum includes an emphasis on hard work, and continuous training to maintain the UAE's ability to cope with changes locally and internationally. Randeree and Chaudhry (2007) argue that organisational success in achieving goals depends on managers and their style of leadership. They also argue that national culture plays an important role in determining the effectiveness of leadership development. House et al. (1996) argue that in some nations, for instance in the Arab countries and in Germany, Russia, France, and the United States, leaders are glorified. House argues that the leaders in these countries are granted significant

influence over a wide range of economic and political policies and practices. On the contrary, in the Netherlands, Austria, Sweden and German-speaking Switzerland, there is a noticeable absence of public symbols that attest to the greatness of leaders. Leaders in these countries are granted little influence.

2.3.1 LDPs in Dubai government organisations

Leadership is crucial factor to the success of organisations in the UAE (Al Naqbi, 2010). According to Abdalla and Al-Homoud (2001), leadership effectiveness is becoming increasingly significant for steering organisational success. There are many investments in LDPs annually in different organisations (Gibler, Carter & Goldsmith, 2000). Organisations need effective leaders in order to archive the goals and objectives of the organisation (Rad & Yarmohammadian, 2006). In addition, the Strategic Plan for the Emirate of Dubai 2015 (Dubai Strategic Plan 2015) emphasises leadership development. Further, the vision of the UAE Vice-President, Prime Minister and Ruler of Dubai, Sheikh Mohammed bin Rashid Al Maktoum, includes an emphasis on hard work and continuous training to maintain the UAE's ability to cope with changes locally and internationally. As a result, most of the governmental organisations within the UAE make significant investments in leadership development (Abbas & Yaqoob, 2009). Yet, there is little research in the UAE about measuring the effectiveness of LDPs (Bond, 2013). Many Dubai government organisations in the UAE consider it necessary to develop effective leaders and seek out successful LDPs that will let the participants transfer the skills and knowledge learned to the workplace.

2.4 National culture and leadership

In the study of leadership, culture is considered very important. Hofstede (1984, p. 21) defines culture as "the collective programming of the mind which distinguishes the members of one human group from another. Moreover, culture also includes systems of values and values are among the building blocks of culture". Culture is considered as a part of the social context where leadership is embedded, and it mediates the interactions of leaders and followers. Culture is a state of mind that appears throughout social communication and is transmitted through the interaction with individuals (Hofstede, 1980, 1983; Triandis, 1994). Studies have considered a wide variety of questions concerning the relationship between culture and leadership over the years. For example,

are the behaviours and styles of certain leader culturally universal? Can leadership theories created in the United States be generalized to other cultural settings? The answers to these questions can offer organisations a strategic benefit in developing a range of potential leaders (House, Hanges, Agar, & Quintanilla, 1995). One way to understand how cultures differ between countries is to consider the study of the most renowned work on cross-cultural variations among organisations and management by Geert Hofstede (1980). Hofstede is a psychologist who identified six key dimensions in understanding national cultures. These cultural dimensions consist of power distance, uncertainty avoidance, individualism/collectivism, masculinity/femininity, long-term orientation and indulgence versus restraints.

According to Hofstede (1993), cross-cultural research has mainly focused on these cultural dimensions over the prior two decades. Hofstede's cultural dimensions and model were applied in 72 countries across the world (Hofstede, 2009). These dimensions have been used to recognize possible boundary conditions for leadership theories that have been used across cultures (Dorfman, 1996). For instance, leadership theories that claim democratic leaders as a model style of leadership might not generalize to cultures where an unequal power distribution is accepted as the norm (Dorfman & Howell, 1988; Jung, Bass, & Sosik, 1995).

The following table (2.1) describe only five dimensions of Hofstede as little has been written by other scholars about the sixth dimension (Whalen, 2016). The Hofstede Dimensions is based on a scale of 0 to 100; the high level of the dimension is represented with 100 while zero represents the low levels (Hofstede, 2009).

Table 2.1: Hofstede dimensions

Cultural dimension	Malaysia	UAE	KSA	China	USA	Australia	UK	Austria
Power distance	100	90	80	80	40	36	35	11
Individualism	26	25	38	20	91	90	89	5
Masculinity	50	50	52	66	62	61	66	79
Uncertainty avoidance	36	80	68	30	46	51	35	70

Source: (http://www.geert-hofstede.com/)

According to Hofstede (2009), there are differences between the Western countries (such as the USA and UK) and the Middle East countries (such as the United Arab Emirates and Saudi Arabia). In addition, Hofstede argues that the objective in the case of the Western countries is to work towards a target of mutual understanding and agreement and to shake-hands when that agreement is reached – a cultural signal of the end of negotiations and the start of working together. In contrast, in Middle Eastern countries all the negotiation takes place in these societies leading into the agreement, which is indicated by shake-hands. The deal is not yet accomplished but, in this case, Hofstede claims that it is a cultural sign that serious negotiations are just starting.

2.4.1 High and low power distance

Hofstede's (2009) analysis proposes that amongst 72 countries, the UK (35), the USA (40) and Austria (11) have lower power distances than other societies such as the United Arab Emirates (90). Organisations in the UK, the USA and Austria are characterised by a small gap between the employees and their superiors, which enables communications and information to flow in both directions (top-down and bottom-up) (Rivera-Vazquez et al., 2009). For example, people are addressed by their first name in cultures with low power distances (Pellegrini & Scandura, 2006) and they believe that employees should have a voice in the decision-making processes (Alves, Lovelace, Manz, Matsypura, Toyasaki & Ke, 2006). It is expected that the leadership styles in the cultures with low power distance will support innovation, flexibility, and general skills (Dickson et al., 2003).

Hofstede's (2009) power distance analysis proposes that the average value for the United Arab Emirates is (90), which is high compared to the UK and the USA. The UAE culture is characterised by a greater inequality of power within the society that, because of their traditional culture, tends to be more accepted by the society (Hofestede, 2009). According to Baker and Abou-Ismail (1993), these characteristics are influenced by Arab and Islamic traditions. Hofstede found that the culture of high power distance followers expect direction and are willing to accept and support the managers views (Livermore, 2010). In contrast, Livermore adds that the culture of low power distance followers anticipate consultation and decisions are shared with the managers. Moreover, followers are willing to express their views and have the right to ask

questions while employees with high power distance always agree with their supervisors about any decision made and are hesitant in trusting others. In contrast, employees with low power distance have a chance to collaborate with their managers more and are less scared of disagreeing with them (Harrison, 1995).

Hofstede and Bond (1988) suggest that both power distance and individualism affect the leadership type most likely to be effective in a country. They also argued that ideal leaders are resourceful democrats in a culture in which power distances are small. In contrast, ideal leaders would be benevolent autocrats in a culture in which power distances are large. For example, where there is a large power distance in the UAE culture, the leaders are the ones who have the most power and control in the country. Furthermore, Kirkman and Shapiro (1997) suggest that employees from high power distance cultures anticipate their managers to guide and direct them, and do not feel comfortable when they have the power in decision-making or when their roles inside the organisation are ambiguous.

2.4.2 High and low uncertainty avoidance

The dimension of uncertainty avoidance is an indicator of how members of a society tolerate uncertainty and ambiguity (Hofstede, 2009). Hofstede argues that some societies are more conscious about security than others are and demonstrate concern about their future (Kawar, 2012). Kawar adds that some cultures might not accept change as a challenge, whereas other cultures may accept change. What does not work in one culture may work in another culture. For example, because of the existence of many laws and regulations the UAE culture is considered high in uncertainty avoidance. In addition, in high uncertainty avoidance countries such as the UAE, it is preferred to use organisational rules and technological solutions to decrease internal uncertainty (Tang, 2012). The research by Hofstede suggests a low average in the UK (40) and in the USA (35) compared to the UAE (80). According to Hofstede, this ranking shows that organisations in the UK and in the USA tend to have fewer rules and regulations. In societies that have low uncertainty avoidance, the tolerance of a diversity of beliefs and ideas tends to be greater than in a culture that has a higher uncertainty avoidance level (Hofstede, 2009; Rivera-Vazquez et al., 2009). In addition, Hofstede argues that it is not easy for an individual in cultures such as in the UAE to accept change but, instead, they value tradition.

2.4.3 Individualism and collectivism

In individualistic oriented societies, society anticipates individuals to be responsible for themselves and their immediate relatives (Livermore, 2010). In contrast, a collectivist culture emphasizes group identity where group decisions are made. Hofstede's measurement shows a high average for individualism in the UK (89) and in the USA (91) while the measurement of the individualism dimension in the United Arab Emirates is (25). The UAE is ranked toward the collectivism side compared to the world average ranking of 64. Bernard (1999) argues that in collectivist cultures leaders already has the moral responsibility to take care of their subordinates. For example, transformational leaders assist their subordinates to prepare career development plans, and to attend different occasions such as birthday parties and funerals (Hernez-Broome & Hughes, 2004). In turn, subordinates have a moral obligation to give their unquestioning devotion and obedience (Bass, 1985). An example of transformational leader is the UAE Vice President, Prime Minister and Ruler of Dubai His Highness Sheikh Mohammed bin Rashid Al Maktoum.

A study conducted by Hofstede and Hofstede (2005) about individualism and collectivism in different countries ranks the United States first in individualism while in other cultures, such as Japan, China and Malaysia, emphases are placed on the collectivist rather than the individualist approach to all life aspects (Chaney & Martin, 2011). The Arab world on the dimension of individualism receives a score of 38, compared to a world average of 64. The Arab world, such the Emirati culture, is considered a collectivist society rather than an individualist culture (Klein, Waxin & Radnell, 2009). As well, people in a collectivist society are closely connected and work together (Livermore, 2010).

2.4.4 Masculine and feminine cultures

According to Hofstede, masculinity (MAS) focuses more on the extent societies support or not support the traditional masculine work role model of male accomplishment, power and control. The ranking of high masculinity shows a high degree of gender differentiation (Klein, Waxin & Radnell, 2009). The result for the Arab world on the dimension of masculinity illustrates a MAS score of 52, only slightly higher than the 50.2 average for all the countries. It is the 23rd top score out of 53 countries and shows

that women have limited rights in the Arab World. This might be due more to the religion of Islam rather than a cultural paradigm (Klein, Waxin & Radnell, 2009). In western countries, the female population has become more competitive and assertive, moving towards the male role model and away from the female one (Hofstede, 2009). Such analysis recommends that women in the Arab World are rather restricted in their social rights but this may be due more to the prevailing religious beliefs rather than to the societal culture (Hofstede, 2009).

2.4.5 Long-term orientation

The fifth Hofstede dimension, which was added later in 2001, is long-term orientation (Hofstede, & Hofstede, 2005). In Hong Kong, a study by Michael Bond concluded that the previous four cultural dimensions developed by Hofstede did not sufficiently reveal Asian perspectives on culture (Cited in Hofstede, 2001, p. 15). The Emirati culture has not yet been examined for this dimension (Albawardy, 2010).

2.4.6 Indulgence versus restraints

Following an analysis by Michael Minkov's of the World Values Survey (2011) data for 93 countries, a sixth dimension was added in 2010 (Hofstede, 2011). Indulgence stands for societies that permit reasonably free satisfaction of basic and normal human drives. This is linked to having fun and enjoying life. Restraints stand for societies where gratification of needs is suppressed and is regulated by means of strict social norms (Hofstede, 2011).

Hofstede's dimensions show the importance of the impact of cultural issues on the effectiveness of LDPs. According to Adler (1991), Badaway (1980) and Bass et al. (1979), national boundaries make significant distinctions in leadership style. In addition, Bass and Stogdill (1990) conclude that there is an impact of cultural issues on leadership. Al-Faleh (1987) suggests that certain distinctive characteristics are in the Arab culture that dominates managerial thinking and behaviour. Many researchers have studied Arab culture and its importance (Sidani, 2008, Obeidat et al. 2012, Sidani, Konrad, & Karam, 2015). For example, Hofstede classified Arab countries as having high power distance, high collectivism, relatively strong uncertainty avoidance, and a moderate Masculinity / Femininity. Nevertheless, one of the main problems in studying

Arab culture is the question of whether to deal with all Arab countries separately or as one unit (Obeidat et al. 2012). Lamb (1987), for example argues that it is difficult to generalise cultural values across all Arab countries as they are different from each other's. Furthermore, other limitations of applying Hofstede's model include equating 'culture' to 'nation' which is highly problematic (Signorini et al. 2009). It has also been noted in literature that the dimensions used in the framework may not be enough to study all aspects of cultural differences (Myers and Tan, 2002). In addition, Hofstede's model may not be generalizable to other countries or organisations because the sample of Hofstede's study was limited to a single organisation (IBM), McSweeney (2002). Another criticism of Hofstede's work as noted in literature is the limitation of only using questionnaires to collect data as a complex subject like culture requires more than one approach in order to cover all aspects (McSweeney, 2002). Qualitative studies are likely yield richer data especially in regions where not many studies have been done such as in the Arab Middle East.

2.5 Global leadership and organisational behaviour effectiveness (GLOBE)

The Global Leadership and organisational behaviour effectiveness program (GLOBE) is one of the comprehensive studies in cross-cultural research (House et al., 2004). The global Leadership and organisational behaviour effectiveness program is a cross-cultural research program that focuses on culture and leadership in 61 nations from all the main geographical regions of the world (House et al., 1996). Additional dimensions of leader attributes and behaviour were examined in by the GLOBE questionnaire. The scales used in the GLOBE program were used for extensive psychometric analyses based on thirty-two countries. In an additional eighteen countries, the findings were replicated on respondents' samples (House, 2004). It was indicated in these findings that use of the scales as total measures of cultural phenomena were valid and acceptable. The psychometric properties of the GLOBE scales show that they can significantly assess distinctions among cultural units in terms of leadership behaviour and societal and organisational practices, beliefs and values. Although further development of the instrument is required, it is evident that the cross-cultural leadership study is becoming more rigorous and that psychometrically sound instruments are now accessible to quantify many of the constructs (House et al., 1996).

2.6 The cultural understanding in LDPs

Research reviewed by Bass and Stogdill (1990) focused on the effect of cultural differences on managerial behaviours, preferences, attitudes, and motivations. In this review, Bass and Stogdill (1990) reveal two main trends in the cross-cultural leadership literature. First, in multiple national settings, the application of Western leadership theory was noted. Second, a substantial effort was made to highlight the leadership styles and requirements of smaller groups of nations with unique cultural norms. Leadership conceptualisation is researched more in Western Europe, Asia, the United States and Latin America while it may be less researched in Africa, the South Pacific, Eastern Europe and Arab nations (Bass & Stogdill, 1990). Many studies use standardized United States instruments and these may not completely capture non-Western or non-U.S. leadership concepts. The LDPs that are used in Dubai government organisations, and the leadership theories they are based on, come from the western context. As a result, cultural understanding may not be addressed in LDPs in Dubai government organisations. For them to be successful, cultural understanding should be considered while developing LDPs. There should be a better understanding of the importance of cultural issues in the effectiveness of LDPs in Dubai organisations.

Chapter 3: LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter consists of five sections of a literature review. The first section starts with leadership conceptualisations and the second section covers the evolution of leadership theories. The third section focuses on the importance of leadership development programs (LDPs). This is followed by examining the connection between LDPS and leadership theories. The fourth section concentrates on the factors that impact on learning transfer. The fifth section discusses leadership styles and metacognition and the final section provides a summary of the review of the literature.

3.1 Leadership conceptualisations

Over the years, leadership has been studied widely in different contexts and on different theoretical foundations. In some cases, leadership has been described as a process, but most research and theories on leadership look at an individual to gain understanding (Bernard, 1926; Drath & Palus, 1994; Fiedler, 1967). Leadership studies have spanned across cultures, decades, and theoretic beliefs (Horner, 1997). Bass (2008) proposes leadership as a universal phenomenon in human societies. Leadership is a popular topic that has long excited the attention of many scholars (Antonakis & House, 2002; Bass, 2008; Albawardy, 2010, Lunenburg & Ornstein, 1996; Northouse, 2004; Yukl, 1998). Studies have discussed and presented different concepts and definitions of leadership (Bass, 2008; Northouse, 2004). Yukl (1998) defines leadership as arbitrary and very subjective. Bass (2008) argues that the most common definitions used focus on the following areas: the leader as a person, the leader's behaviour, the leader's effects, and the communication process between the leader and subordinates. On the other hand, Northouse (2010, p. 3) defines leadership as a process whereby an individual influences a group of individuals to achieve a common goal. Kim and Maubourgne (1992) suggest leadership is to have the ability to inspire confidence and support between the people who are needed to accomplish the goals of an organisation. More explicitly, House and his colleagues define leadership as "the capability to influence, inspire, and enable others to have a contribution toward the efficiency and success of the association" (House, Hanges, Ruiz-Quintanilla, Dorfman, Javidan & Dickson, 1999, p. 184).

Table 3.1 lists a number of definitions of leadership from different researchers during the years 1957 to 1999.

Table 3.1: Definitions of leadership

Definition	References
"the behaviour of an individual … directing the activities of a group toward a shared goal"	(Hemphill & Coons, 1957, p. 7)
"the influential increment over and above mechanical compliance with the routine directives of the organisation"	(Katz & Kahn, 1978, p. 528)
"exercised when persons … mobilize … institutional, political, psychological, and other resources so as to arouse, engage, and satisfy the motives of followers"	(Burns, 1978, p. 18)
"the process of influencing the activities of an organised group toward goal achievement"	(Rauch & Behling, 1984, p. 46)
"about articulating visions embodying values, and creating the environment within which things can be accomplished"	(Richards & Engle, 1986, p. 206)
"the ability of an individual to influence, motivate, and enable others to contribute toward the effectiveness and success of the organisation"	(House et al., 1999, p. 184)
"a process of giving purpose (meaningful direction) to collective effort, and -causing willing effort to be expended to achieve purpose"	(Jacobs & Jaques, 1990, p. 281)
"the ability to step outside the culture … to start evolutionary change processes that are more adaptive"	(Schein, 1992, p. 2)
"the process of making sense of what people are doing together so that people will understand and be committed"	(Drath & Palus, 1994, p. 204)

Source: Adapted from (Yukl, 2002, p. 3)

3.2 Evolution of leadership theories

The growing interest in leadership is illustrated by the rising number of studies in the topic. In 1948, Stogdill reported that there were 124 books, articles, and abstracts that focussed on leadership. Sixty years later, Bass and Bass (2008) found 188 articles related to leadership that were published between 1990 and 1999 in just one journal – Leadership Quarterly. This significant body of research collated by Stodgill has led to over 65 different theories and approaches to conceptualizing and classifying leadership (Mumford, 2000).

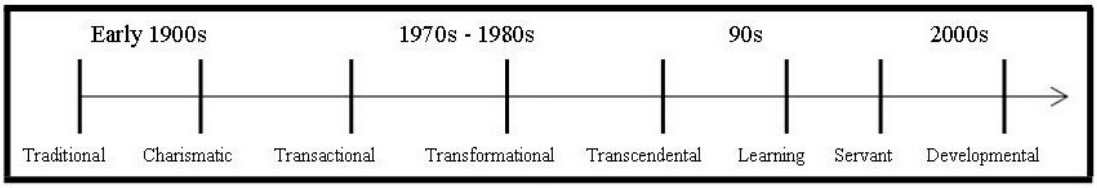


Figure 3.1: Leadership Theory Timeline, Holt (2011, p. 18)

Prior to the 1900s, the idea of leadership was centred on Great-Man theories (Judge et al., 2002) that argued that great leaders are born, not made. The idea of the Great-Man theories can be traced back to the Scottish scholar and philosopher Thomas Carlyle (1795-1881). The Great Man theory is an assertion that some people are considered as gifts from God placed in the world to uplift human existence (Spector, 2016). According to Bass and Stogdill (1990), from the idea of a Great Man, the trait approach emerged. This approach theorized that the difference between leaders and followers is a set of traits with which they were born; for instance aspiration, achievement-orientation, and determination (Bass & Stogdill 1990; Horner,1997; Avolio, 2007; Bass, 2008).

The trait theory approach was introduced in the 1940s. It focused on different personality traits and argued thaty the difference between a leader and a follower is a set of traits with which the leader was born (Green, 1994). Leadership was viewed by researchers as an inherent set of traits that can be designated and measured and distinguishable from non-leaders (Gray & Smeltzer, 1989).

Behavioural theories emerged between 1940 and 1960. Behavioural theories focused on the way of doing things; that is, leadership behaviours rather than leadership traits. According to Collins et al. (2000), the behaviourally-based leadership styles can be categorised as autocratic, democratic, and laissez-faire styles. Practitioners and researchers alike have used many different instruments to evaluate the behaviours of leaders. The style approach research stimulated the development of measurement instruments such as the Leadership Behaviour Description Questionnaire (LBDQ). The managerial grid was developed by Blake and Mouton (1964) and later became the Leadership Grid. Both of these measures provide information about the degree to which a leader is task directed or people directed (Northouse, 2016). The leadership grid explains how leaders help their organisations achieve their purpose through concern for

people and concern for production (Northouse, 2016). Concern for people refers to the way leaders attend to the people in organisations that are trying to accomplish their goals. Concern for production refers to how leaders are concerned with completing the tasks of an organisation (Northouse, 2016).

The Leadership Grid represents five major leadership styles: authority-compliance (9,1), country-club management (1,9), impoverished management (1,1), middle-of-the-road management (5,5), and team management (9,9). The Leadership Grid was designed mainly for training and development purposes and continues to be used today for training managers in the leadership process.

Between the late 1960s and the early 1980s, the contingency-situational approach was employed in much leadership research (Fiedler, 1967). The situational approach, developed by Hersey and Blanchard (1969a), is one of the more widely recognized approaches to leadership. This approach focusses on communication between leaders and followers (Yukl, 2002). The essence of the situational approach demands that leaders match their style to the competence and commitment of the followers. Effective leaders are those who can recognize what followers need and then adapt their own styles to meet those needs. In addition, the situational approach stresses that leadership is composed of supportive and directive dimensions, and that each has to be applied appropriately in a given situation. The four leadership styles of the situational approach are telling/directing, selling/coaching, participating/supporting, and delegating/observing. In different situations, leaders need to adapt their styles to meet the needs of a particular condition.

Another significant theory, developed in response to conflicting results from behavioural approaches, was House's path-goal theory (House, 1997). In the path-goal theory of leadership, four kinds of leadership behaviour are suggested: supportive, directive, participative, and achievement-oriented (House, 1971, House & Dessler, 1974). Supportive leadership involves the leader's convincing employees where there are a genuine concern for their requirements and aspirations. This is achieved by acting in a friendly and supportive way towards employees and by encouraging a supportive work environment. Directive leadership, according to Warnstam (2008), is when a

leader gives detailed and unambiguous directions to employees who are expected to obey them. Directive leaders allow their employees to be aware of what is required of them and how they should accomplish relevant objectives and outcomes. Participative leadership entails a leader who consults with employees and evaluates their opinions and recommendations before making a decision. Achievement-oriented leadership concerns setting challenging goals for employees, preserving continuous improvements by employees, and believing in the ability of employees to perform at a high level. According to Jackson (1995), research has generally shown good support for the predictability of House's path-goal theory, but some predictions have not been supported.

3.2.1 Charismatic leadership theory

Charismatic leadership theory has been accepted widely by sociologists, political historians, and political scientists (Bass, Goodheim & Avolio, 1987) and was introduced originally in the seminal work by Weber (1947). Charismatic leadership is defined as a unique quality that allows leaders to be non-exploitative yet inspires followers to maximize an organisation's gains through precise personal actions (Howell & Frost, 1989). Furthermore, charismatic leadership is characterized as the ability of a leader to assist followers to achieve personal higher-order targets and to inspire followers with a sense of power that supports them to follow goals. Charismatic leadership is considered a leadership style that focuses on development (Choi, 2006). Choi also argues that charismatic leaders are efficient, and demonstrate various talents and abilities. This type of leader can effectively inspire followers to accomplish their targets.

3.2.2 Transactional leadership theory

The theory of transactional leadership recommends that leaders make use of organisational frameworks to inform subordinates about what they have to do and what rewards they will get for following instructions (Bass, 1997). The use of rewards in transactional leadership can be efficient, especially in routine conditions, and lead to high performance and follower's satisfaction (Bass, Avolio, & Goodheim, 1987). The transactional leader performs several tasks: they communicate objectives and expectations of performance, they connect objectives and accomplishments to rewards

and observe the performance of followers according to their accomplished objectives, and they take corrective action when required (Smith et al., 2004). These types of leaders reward subordinates who follow instructions and warn people who do not follow instructions. Transactional leadership will yield only short-term gains and cannot be used long term. It is important for organisations to know about this type of leadership. Galanou (2010) defines transactional leadership style depending on the extent to which the managers discuss matters with their subordinates before any decision is made about what is needed to be done in order to achieve the objectives of the unit.

3.2.3 Transformational leadership theory

The theory of transformational leadership, introduced by Burns in 1978, recommends that leaders and subordinates connect in a social exchange to attain a desired target. Burns argues that transformational leaders are people who elevates subordinates and themslves to a higher level of inspiration and morals. Examples of transformational leaders are Mahatma Gandhi, Winston Churchill and Nelson Mandela. Each of these leaders had the capacity to motivate and inspire others. According to Hernez-Broome and Hughes (2004), transformational leadership provides compelling visions of a better future and encourages trust over apparently unshakeable self-confidence and conviction.

Avolio et al. (2009) suggest that in the early 1980s there was significant disillusionment with leadership theories and research. Part of this disillusionment was attributed to the fact that most leadership models and measures accounted for fairly small percentage of variance in performance outcomes such as productivity and effectiveness (Avolio et al., 2009). Avolio argues that a number of alternative approaches, collectively referred to as ‘new leadership’, appeared out of this pessimism. The new leadership models differ from traditional leadership models by considering leader behaviour in terms of leader-follower exchange relationships, providing direction and support, setting goals and reinforcement behaviours.

During the 1980s, the new or transformational approach became the main focus in many leadership studies (e.g., Burns, 1978; Bass, 1985; Bass, 1995). For example, Bass (1995) argues that transformational leadership is one of the most popular approaches to leadership. Bass argues that leadership has been traditionally conceptualised as an

individual-level skill. An excellent example of this is found in the theory of transformational leadership, which suggests that transformational leaders engage in behaviours linked to the dimensions of charisma, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration (Bass, 1985).

There is an agreement among scholars that there are differences between charismatic and transformational leadership (e.g. Robert, 2006; Bass, 1985; Conger & Kanungo, 1987). For example, Robert (2006) argues that a transformational leader can create the impression that an individual has high ability and a vision to achieve success. Moreoever, Robert claims that a transformational leader can motivate subordinates to perform and to reach targets beyond the usual expectation. Effective leaders are also seen as transformational, which literally means they are able to lead and motivate people to produce transformational change in an organisation or even a whole nation, through vision, energy, commitment and excellent communication skills. Fisher (2009) that transformational leadership goes beyond the idea that workers are motivated by rewards and punishments (i.e. transactional leadership) by considering other motivators for effective performance.

Another study by Burns (1978) examined the distinctions between charismatic leadership and transformational leadership. Burns describes charismatic leadership as one of the forms of transformational leadership where transformational leadership is a positive or desirable form of leadership but charismatic leadership has strong potential for generating negative outcomes. Burns (1978) also argue that there is distinction between transactional leadership and transformational leadership. Transactional leaders recognize the existing needs and goals of their followers and rewards are provided for the fulfillment of these needs and goals. On the other hand, followers are raised to a higher level of need and aspirations by having transformational leaders (Burns 1978). For example, the chairman and CEO of Starbucks, Howard Schultz, has demonstrated heroic acts that have helped him be perceived as a transformational leader (Orlando & Olivares, 2011). Howard Schultz is quoted as saying, “success is very shallow if it doesn’t have emotional meaning” (Ignatius 2010, p. 111).

3.2.4 Transcendental leadership theory

It was suggested by Geroy et al. (2005) that transcendental leadership is concerned with the internal journey and, therefore, it is a more efficient leadership style than transformational leadership. These authors claim transcendental leadership goes beyond transformational leadership because transcendental leaders motivate action and a sense of unity, harmony, and well-being by caring about their subordinates. This type of leader has a strong self-appreciation and assists subordinates to feel empowered and motivated to be decision-makers, to complete tasks and to lead on their own (Fairholm, 1996). Companies which have regularly created leaders embodying the theory of transcendental leadership include General Electric, Nordstrom, Johnson & Johnson, and Disney (Ulrich & Smallwood, 2007). Transcendental leaders produced by these companies demonstrate they put the needs of others above their own needs. Results can be observed in company profits, in customer satisfaction, employee engagement, and in the retention of both employees and customers (Macey & Schneider, 2008).

3.2.5 Learning leadership theory

The theory of learning leadership recommends that leadership is a common procedure where learning and development occurs during the life of an individual (Gordon, 2002). McCauley et al. (1998) define leadership development as a person's growth to be efficient and successful in the roles and processes of leadership (p. 4). According to Brungardt (1996), leadership development is defined as each type of growth or development stage in the life cycle that facilitates the expansion in knowledge and skill needed to optimize one's leadership potential and performance (p. 83).

A study was conducted by Hernez-Broome and Hughes (2004) to further our understanding of the nature of leadership development. It was thought for many years that leadership for some people comes naturally and could not be learned. However, these researchers found that leadership can be learned, and leaders believe it is essential to carry on growing and developing. Successful leaders must learn to develop new traits that encourage subordinates to achieve more (Kouzes & Posner, 2002). The assumption that people have the ability to be taught to direct and lead puts the onus on companies to have efficient LDPs that support this learning.

3.2.6 Servant leadership theory

Servant leadership is a very popular model developed by Robert Greenleaf (1991). Servant leadership is currently in its fourth decade as a leadership theory and continues to develop in popularity around the globe (Spears, 2004). Greenleaf (1991) is of the view that a servant leader is service-orientated first and then rises to leadership positions. The theory of servant leadership is distinctive because it is dissimilar to other theories because its focal point is on self-reflection and self-development of the leader as a human being person (Greenleaf, 1970). According to Russell and Stone (2002), the idea of servant leadership is for leaders to dedicate themselves in order to serve the needs of members within organisations, focus on meeting the needs of those they lead, develop and coach others, and inspire self-expression and enable personal growth in all who work with them. The servant leaders are strongly people-oriented because they have characteristics such as understanding and empathy, deep commitment, and have a healing relationships with people who are emotionally troubled (Rúiz, Martínez, & Rodrigo, 2010). Rúiz adds that the servant leaders' possess skills to predict likely outcomes of future situations by understanding the past and the issues which involve power, ethics and conceptual thinking.

3.2.7 Developmental leadership theory

Developmental leadership is defined as viewing the growth and development of an employee as the vital target and, as employees and leaders develop, so does their organisation (McAlearney, 2008). It is important to offer individualized plans that recognize precise strengths, areas of employee weakness and to identify future leaders (Cacioppe, 1998). The advantage of developmental leaders is that they value an individual's development over the organisation's development. As a result, this type of leader allows organisations to move in a variety of strategic business directions (Gordon, 2002). Developmental leaders view all employees as potential leaders and maximizing their chances to develop (Gilley & Maycunich, 2000).

3.2.8 Five levels of leadership theory

William and Stanley (2002) discuss the five levels of leadership which is a theory introduced by Collins. Collins developed this theory of five steps. It permits

organisations to adapt from a good organisation to a better one. Level 5 refers to the executive capabilities which are the highest level in a hierarchy. The other four levels, effective leader, competent manager, contributing team members and highly capable individuals. Some leaders may be successful, but are incapable of elevating companies from mediocrity to sustained excellence (William & Stanley, 2002).

In summary, leadership theories and approaches have evolved over time. Earlier theories focused mainly on the characteristics of the leader when is was believed that leaders are born not made. Leadership is conceptualised differently across cultures, (Dickson et al., 2012). Hence, this present study looks for the conceptualisation of leadership and identifies what makes an effective leader. It is important that organisations understand the different leadership theories and conceptualisations in order to decide what makes an effective leader and before developing LDPs. As well, the study examines how different leadership styles play a role in faciitating learning transfer.

3.3 The importance of leadership development programs (LDPs)

Today, leadership is vital for the development and future prospects of organisations (Holt, 2011; Gentry et al., 2014; Glamuzina, 2015). Leadership is considered, increasingly, to be an important key for the success of organisations (Avolio & Hannah, 2009; Shebaya, 2011; Gentry et al., 2014). Leadership has been a major topic in management and business literature over the last few years (Cacioppe, 1998, Gentry et al., 2014). The rapid changes in technology, business, political and social factors have required the development of effective leadership skills. In today's competitive and very dynamic business environment, the failure and the success of organisations are often highly influenced by the existence of effective leaders with broad business perception (Mathafena, 2007). Leadership development is identified as a critical element for an organisation's long term success (Mumford et al., 2000; Collins & Holton, 2004; Avolio & Hannah, 2009; Day et al., 2014; Dinh et al., 2014). Leadership development aims to develop leaders and and encourage the transfer of organisational culture and values that ultimately result in collective sharing with all organisation members to achieve the objectives of the organisation (Hamilton & Cynthia, 2005). Leadership development is intended to develop the managers' skills at all levels, whether tactical, operational,

strategic or personal (Abbas &Yaqoob, 2009). Leadership development is only one of many essential areas in which organisations must strategically invest. Organisations with poor leadership will not be able to cope with changes in the environment (Emiliani, 2008). According to Avolio and Hannah (2009), the development of leaders is an expressed goal in most organisations. Such organisations value the importance of training future leaders and they understand the value of ongoing and continuous leadership development programs which help talented managers become real leaders (Thach & Heinselman, 2000; Day 2000; Day et al., 2014). Many organisations are spending large amounts of money on training and require their employees to participate in training programs to learn new skills (Dirani, 2017). Consequently, LDPs have become a priority for government organisations and business (Cacioppe, 1998; Holt 2011).

Leadership development programs (LDPs) are "structured, off-the-job events that bring individuals together for shared learning and development experiences" (McCauley, 2008, p. 24). Leadership development programs are considered to be one of the vital factors in many large organisations (Packard & Jones, 2015). The most important concern in contemporary leadership development programs is how managers can adopt leadership attributes and efficiently use them to accomplish their roles and responsibilities to achieve organisational success (Hamilton and Cynthia, 2005). There has been an increase in LDPs around the world because organisations recognise the importance of leadership which impacts on the success or failure of the organisation (Woltring, Constantine & Schwarte, 2003; Hernez-Broome & Hughes, 2004; Holt, 2011).

Unfortunately, several companies are failing to reap the maximum advantage from LDPs (Hernez-Broome & Hughes, 2004). Leadership development programs are struggling to create effective and dynamic leaders who are able to lead in a changing marketplace (Fulmer & Goldsmith, 2001; Goleman, Boyatzis, & McKee, 2002). Consequently, there is increasing pressure to improve LDPs and provide emerging leaders with the suitable training needed to become effective leaders (Holt, 2011). Great leaders are able to implement decisions effectively (Mills, Print, & Weinstein, 2003) and leadership development programs that prepare leaders to successfully meet the

expectations and objectives of an ever-changing, demanding market are critical for organisations facing a lack of effective leaders (Holt, 2011). The effectiveness of these programs is measured by the trainee's ability to transfer the skills and knowledge learned to the workplace (Roe, 1997; Kozlowski & Salas, 1997; Hutchins et al., 2013; Tonhauser & Buker, 2016). Research reveals that learning transfer is complex and associated with several factors (Baldwin, & Ford, 1988; Burke & Hutchins, 2007; Rouiller & Goldstein, 1993). In that sense, learning transfer seemed to remain significant in organisations which making steady and large investments to develop their employees through LDPs.

3.4 The application of leadership theories to LDPs

Leadership theories, and scholarly writings about the theories, have dominated academic discourses for several decades. The notion of Great Man theory of leadership became popular during the 19th century, which argued that great leaders are born, not made. According to Bass and Stogdill (1990), from the idea of a Great Man the trait approach emerged in the 1940s. Then behavioural theories emerged between 1940 and 1960 that were developed through studies at Ohio State University and the University of Michigan and concentrated on the way of doing things. Between the late 1960s and the early 1980s, the contingency-situational approach dominated much of the leadership research (Fiedler, 1964; Hersey & Blanchard, 1969). These theories focused on the significance of situational factors in leadership. Hersey and Blanchard suggest that situational leadership theory is one type of contingency theory, which proposes that leaders must adapt their leadership style to different situations. Four leadership styles were identified: directing/telling, coaching/selling, supporting/participating and observing/delegating. The style used must be applied in accordance with the employee maturity level. The theory of transformational leadership was introduced by Downton (1973) and further popularised by Burns in 1978 and describes leadership as a process that transforms organisations and people.

There is a relatively long history of leadership theory and research spanning more than a century (Avolio et al., 2009). In contrast, there is a fairly short history of rigorous scholarly theory and study of the leadership development topics. Historically, a lot of attention has been paid to leadership theories and it turns out that it is not sufficient to

just identify and decide on the correct leadership theories that should be used for leadership development. According to Day (2014), developing an effective leadership process should involve more than just determining which leadership theory to be used to encourage effective leadership development. That is because human development involves a complex set of practices that need to be understood.

According to Carbone (2009) who argues that it is obvious from the literature that just as leadership theories have appeared and developed over time, the concept of LDPs in organisations has also emerged. Unlike the ides centred on Great-Man theories (Judge et al., 2002), which suggested that great leaders are born, not made, however, the current prevailing belief is that leadership can be learned (McCauley et al., 1998; Northouse, 2006), and that most people are able to act as leaders (Northouse, 2006). The idea that leadership can be taught is an essential one given the existence of LDPs. If leadership could not be learned, these LDPs would not have value (Carbone, 2009).

3.5 Conceptualisations of leadership in different culture

There is an assumption that theories of leadership hold universal validity and that what is desirable leadership behaviour in one context will also be desired in other contexts (McCarthy, 2005). However, many cultural researchers (Hofstede, 2001; Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner, 1999; Trompenaars and Wooliams, 1999) have argued that leadership is conceptualised differently across cultures and it is not enough to define leadership within a single cultural context (Dickson et al., 2012). Different researchers (e.g. James, 2008; Turnbull & Edwards, 2005; Carbone, 2009) believe new theories that are suitable for different cultures are needed. According to McCarthy (2005), most leadership theories are in English and of American origin (e.g. Stewart et al., 1994; Olie, 1995; Lawrence, 2000). One of the main drawbacks of the general literature of leadership is that it has a North-American bias (Den, Hartog & Dickson, 2004). In other words, it is uncertain whether the findings of the research are generalized beyond North American culture (mainly US culture), or whether the knowledge about leadership is culturally limited. Even when researchers conduct studies elsewhere, they usually uses measures, theories and models developed in North America. This type of research may be applicable if it is used in Western countries but it may not be as useful in other countries. According to Rousseau and Fried (2001), the majority of the knowledge and insights that make up the content of LDPs is developed through research in the Western

countries, particularly the United States. These programs are local in scope, but at its heart lies a collection of global and international programs (Rousseau & Fried, 2001). The development of Western leadership theories have depended mainly on the contributions of several American and European theorists and scholars such as Max Weber and Henri Fayol, and on the works of authors such as Robert House and Bernard Bass (Sidani, 2008). According to Sidani (2008), the notion of Western leadership theories do not essentially have a universal application. For example, Yukl (1998) argues that most of the leadership research has been conducted in countries such as the USA, Western Europe and Canada reflecting a shortage of studies conducted in other regions. In evaluating the universality of modern leadership theories, it is recognized at the outset that some leadership behaviors and perceptions are universal. Instead, other studies have specified that there are substantial differences between different cultures (House et al., 1997, Rousseau & Fried, 2001, Chen & Lee, 2008; Dickson et al., 2012).

The applicability of concepts and theories developed in one part of the world, should not be taken for granted when used in different cultures (Boyacigiller & Adler, 1991). In particular, Hofstede (1993) reveals that U.S. management theories have idiosyncrasies that are not applicable to other parts of the world (e.g. they focus on the individual and focus on managers rather than workers). Furthermore, House (1995) has a similar observation and argues that most theories of leadership and leadership measures reflect individualistic rather than collectivistic values; they highlight assumptions of rationality rather than ascetics, religion, or superstition; they focus on individual instead of group incentives, and emphasizes the responsibilities of followers rather than rights. In addition, Abdalla and Al-Homoud (2001) assert that, since there is a major lack of locally valid Arab theories of management and leadership, it is essential to look at the imported leadership theories and to develop new theories that are sensitive to the culture of the UAE.

Leadership theory has not lived up to its promise of helping practitioners resolve the challenges in organisations or help stakeholders create a more effective leadership theory. Leadership development is a complex topic that is deserving of scholarly attention with regard to theory and research that is independent of what has been studied more commonly in the leadership field. While current theories of leadership have grown

in sophistication and breadth, they have not translated into a similar range of effective practices.

3.6 Leadership development approaches

There is extensive research about leadership development programs which have used different leadership theories and practices (e.g. Day, 2001; Abbas & Yaqoob, 2009; Carbone, 2009; Holt, 2011; Pinnington, 2011). For instance, Day (2001) identified that the most popular practices to develop leaders are 360-degree feedback and executive coaching, mentoring and networking, job assignments and action learning. The 360 degree, or multi-source, multi-rater (MSMR) feedback allows leaders to identify and focus on their strengths and areas for improvement. 360 degree feedback is most widely used for the purpose of development in the UK and USA (McDowall & Mabey, 2008). Given the popularity of 360 degree feedback in the UK and USA, scholars have raised fears about using this type of assessment in different culture, particularly in Eastern cultures (Entrekin & Chung, 2001; Hofstede, 2001). This supports the study of Gao et al. (2011) which was conducted in China and also discussed using 360-degree feedback. According to (Hofstede, 2001), China is considered to be a high power distance country and the usefulness of 360-degree feedback in China is disputed among the managers. In addition, Gao argues that western colleagues use the 360-degree feedback as an opportunity to raise their concerns, whereas the Asians colleagues are more restrained by politeness in their way of scoring and they usually leave fields for comments blank. Furthermore, some respondents will not give accurate feedback because they are scared that it might measure their loyalty and, whether it is warranted or not, such fears are expected to influence the survey data. There is some recent research which has supported the claim that multisource feedback provides different results in different cultures (Shipper, Hoffman, & Rotondo, 2007).

Alfadly (2012), also looked at using 360-degree feedback in Kuwait; another high context culture. The culture of Kuwaiti managers is strongly influenced in many respects by traditional Islamic customs, values and beliefs. There are differences in the Americans and Kuwaiti cultures in terms of cultural characteristics. Hofstede (2001) cautions that performance appraisal should be properly adjusted to cultures with specific characteristics. The attitudes toward the appraisal system may have a major effect on the

ultimate effectiveness of that system (Entrekin & Chung, 2001). It is argued by Fletcher et al. (1998), that the instruments of 360-degree feedback programs need to be tested just like any other psychometric tool is tested. Otherwise the intruments may lack validity and reliability. The Emirati culture is also considered to be a high power distance culture (Hofstede, 1980) and leaders in the UAE may not, therefore, readily accept evaluation by subordinates. This brings into question the appropriateness of using Western-based leadership theories and development practices in different national or regional contexts. Some LDPs do not consider choice of the best leadership practices to deliver programs most applicable to the context of the UAE (Hartman, 2006). Although commonly used in the UK and USA, cultural differences have not been discussed to see if 360 degree feedback is able to be applied at universally (McDowall & Mabey, 2008).

Another study (Pinnington, 2011) discusses empirical research of leadership development conducted in Scotland. This study examined five leadership approaches (transformational, charismatic, authentic, servant and spiritual) and six common leadership development practices (mentoring, coaching, 360 degree feedback, networks, job assignment and action learning). These practices have been debated and implemented using standardized approaches to leadership and its development. The LDP approaches adopted by Western countries tend to be implemented in some form internationally.

One of the leadership practices used in LDPs is that of executive coaching (Day et al., 2014; Pinnington, 2011). Coaching is one-on-one learning, it is an ongoing process and it is used to improve a career and to develop leaders (Day, 2001). Coaching is preferred by most organisations but only for a short period because the cost of coaching from an external consultant ranges from $1,500 per day to more than $100,000 for a multiyear program (Day, 2001). However, a study by Al Naqbi (2010) that examined the efficiency and effectiveness of leadership development practises in the UAE showed that only 8% of leadership development programs used coaching. In contrast, coaching accounts for 56% of leadership development programs in Scotland. Day (2001) suggests that job assignments and action learning are some of the oldest and most practical forms of leadership development. Job assignments develop leaders through

challenging job experiences. There are different types of job assignments such as task force memberships, job rotation, expanded current assignment, and new jobs. In the study by Al Naqbi (2010), it was found that job assignments were a common practice employed both in Scotland and in the UAE. Job assignments practice accounted for 52% of leadership development programs in the Scotland while in UAE it was only 15%. Leadership development is improved when assignments are matched with an individual's developmental needs (Day, 2001). Day et al. (2014) further argue that there should be more focus on matching individuals with the needed development assignments. In addition Phillips and Schmidt (2004) describe action learning as project-based learning. This shows the importance of looking for the best leadership development practices for the UAE context. According to Al Naqbi (2010), organisations in the UAE should look at the different international LDPs and make sure they use the leadership development practices that are most effective in the UAE setting.

3.7 Hofstede dimensions and LDPs

Studies have considered a wide variety of questions about the relationship between culture and leadership: For example, are the behaviours and styles of leaders culturally universal? Can leadership theories created in the United States be generalized to other cultural settings? The answers to these questions can offer organisations a strategic benefit for the development of potential leaders (House, Hanges, Agar, & Quintanilla, 1995). One way to understand how cultures differ between countries is in the study of cross-cultural differences among organisations and management by Geert Hofstede (1980). Hofstede is a psychologist who developed a series of cultural dimensions that can measure national culture attributes. The dimensions are Power Distance, Uncertainty Avoidance, Individualism, Masculinity, Long-term Orientation and Indulgence versus restraints. These dimensions have been used to recognize possible boundary conditions for leadership theories that have been used across cultures (Dorfman, 1996). For instance, leadership theories that claim democratic leaders as a model style of leadership might not generalize to cultures where an unequal power distribution is accepted as the norm (Dorfman, 1996).

In terms of the dimension of power distance, Helgstrand and Stuhlmacher (1999) suggest that employees of a culture with low power distance have little concern for status, titles, and formality and do not accept decisions made without their influence. The authors claim that employees of a culture with low power distance will not accept that there are many links of power between them and the people making the final decisions about their work. According to Hofstede (2009), there are differences between the Middle East countries (such as the United Arab Emirates and Saudi Arabia) and the Western countries (such as the USA and the UK). Hofstede claims that it is a cultural sign that serious discussions are just starting about the differences between the Middle East countries and Western countries (Hofstede, 2009). In addition, members of individualistic cultures prefer direct and assertive methods when resolving conflicts (Ting-Toomey, 1988). Such countries are Canada, the United States, Australia, Germany and England (Elsayed-Ekhouly & Buda, 1996; Trubisky et al., 1991). Individualistic cultures are more concerned with self than others and involve strong verbal communication and less concern with the needs of others (Hofstede, 1983; Rahim, 1992; Rahim & Blum, 1994). In contrast, in collectivistic cultures such as Korea, Japan, China, Mexico and the Middle East, the needs of one's group are considered more vital than oneself (Hofstede, 1980, 1983) and conflict communication will reflect this.

3.8 Global leadership and organisational behaviour effectiveness program

The global leadership and organisational behaviour effectiveness program (GLOBE) is a cross-cultural research program conducted in the mid-1990s. It focused on culture and leadership in 62 countries and involved more than 170 investigators (House et al., 2004). The study was designed to replicate and expand on Hofstede's (1980, 2001) work and considered nine cultural dimensions: power distance, uncetainly avoidance, institutional collectivism, in-group collectivism, gender egalitarianism, assertiveness, performance orientation, future orientation and humane orientation (Venaik & Brewer, 2010). The GLOBE questionnaire is one of the measurements instruments developed explicitly to quantify dimensions of beliefs, values, and practices at the community and organisational levels (House, 2004). The psychometric properties of the GLOBE scales show that they can significantly assess distinctions between cultural units in terms of leadership behaviour and organisational practices, and beliefs and values (House et al.,

1996). The importance of factoring cultural issues into LDPs was also introduced in the work of Robert House and his colleagues in the project GLOBE study of 2002. They believe that successful leadership behaviours vary within different cultures (House et al., 1996). Consequently, in order for top leaders to manage their organisations in the 21st century, leaders must be aware of the regional and ethnic cultural diversity of their working environments. House argues that it is becoming increasingly obvious that leadership development programs (LDPs) should be modified by the cultural variety embedded in the international context and varying national cultures.

According to Kauzya (2007), because culture often varies significantly from country to country, leadership development programs need to be undertaken with a clear understanding of the main purpose of the program and the impact of national culture on leadership. Leadership development programs tend to be based on Western leadership theories, and predominantly utilize Western leadership development approaches.

3.9 LDPs in Middle East

The literature highlights a few training and development-related studies for the Middle East region. The studies are about the influence of Arab culture on management practices (e.g. Al-Faleh, 1987; Bakhtari, 1995; Ali, 1996; Al-Rasheed & Al-Qwasmeh, 2003; Mellahi, 2003). Some studies have observed concerns related to the transfer of management practices from the West/East to the region (e.g. Hill et al., 1998; Yavas, 1998; Saleh & Kleiner, 2005). Moreover, Carl et al. (2004), claim that the management style in the Western cultures is low power distance and is more flexible. On the contrary, the UAE culture is relatively higher power distance which means the leadership practices and styles are different and include more centralized decision making (Abdalla & Al-Homoud, 2001). The study by Agrawal and Rook (2014) refers to the GLOBE study as one of the most extensive comparative leadership research projects. The GLOBE study shows that while the ideal characteristics are alike in all countries, leadership styles vary across cultures. Dorfman et al., (2012, p. 511) suggest that "leaders behave in a manner consistent with the desired leadership found in that culture" .

A limited number of scholarly studies have reflected on leadership styles in the Arab world (Muna, 1980; Al-Jafary and Hollingsworth, 1983; Ali et al., 1995; Yousef, 2000), with a key finding being that the Arab culture nurtures consultative and participative styles. These types of leadership styles are more appropriate in the Arab world because Arab leaders are influenced by Islamic and tribal values and beliefs (Yousef, 2000) and both tribal law and Islamic Law support consultation in all aspects of life. Furthermore, Sidani refers to Ibn Khaldun's (1332-1406) understanding of leadership conceptualisation that has applicability in different era and culture, specifically non-Western societies (Sidani, 2008). For example, it is noted by Sidani (2008) that Ibn Khaldun had acknowledged that Western leadership perspective applies better in individualistic societies. Also, Bass (1997) explained the meaning of universally applicable conceptualisations of leadership that some universal concepts could be influenced by country specific values, cognitive schemas, or behaviours. In addition, Ibn Khaldun addresses the role of religion and how it may strengthen leadership situations (Sidani, 2008). Furthermore, House (1995) highlights that all commonly known leadership theories are based on research done in North America. Therefore, the empirical evidence is commonly generated from individualistic societies not collectivistic societies (House, 1995; Den Hartog et al., 1999)." Hence there is a need to understand leadership conceptualisations in different contexts. Recent scholarly publications have begun to conclude that new theories and approaches that are appropriate to differences cultures are required for leadership development programs (LDPs) (Pinnington, 2011; Carbone 2009). Furthermore, (Avolio, Walumbwa & Weber; 2009) argue that while most leadership research and theories have been developed and tested within a Western context, there is an increasing interest in research and theory which focuses on leadership across cultural contexts.

Little consideration has been given to integrating cultural issues in leadership development programs within the UAE (Randeree & Chaudhry, 2007; Al-Khatib, 2012). For instance, the study by Al-Khatib (2012) mentions that the UAE is an Islamic country which is significantly influenced by the Arabic culture, traditions, principles and language which plays a major role in the lifestyle of citizens (Suliman, 2006). Several studies (e.g. Aram & Piriano, 1978; Burger & Bass, 1979; Adler, 1991) agree that leadership is culturally determined and differs from culture to culture.

3.10 Contextualization of LDPs

Leadership has been analysed and studied in the West for thousands of years (Adair, 2002; Avery, 2004; Bass, 2008). However, leadership in East Asia and the West has different cultural roots and is practiced differently across cultures (Chen & Lee, 2008; Dickson et al., 2012). Leadership is conceptualised differently across cultures and it is not sufficient to define leadership within a single cultural context (Dickson e al., 2012). There is agreement among scholars (e.g. Bass et al., 1979; Bass & Stogdill, 1990; Adler, 1991; Robbins, 1993; Randeree & Chaudhry, 2007) that national culture influences leadership styles. For instance, Randeree and Chaudhry (2007) argue that national culture plays an important role in determining the effectiveness of leadership development. According to Day et al. (2014), many current theories and models which determines the effectiveness of LDPs are not contextualized. The majority of the knowledge and insights that make up the content of LDPs comes from research in the Western countries particularly from the United States (Rousseau & Fried, 2001). Yet, organisations need to take into account that people come from and live in diverse cultures. Understanding the context of the country is vital for leadership development. In addition, Abdalla and Al-Homoud (2001) assert that, since there is a serious lack of locally valid Arab theories of management and leadership and it is essential to look at the imported leadership theories and to develop new theories that are sensitive to the culture of the UAE. There are several limiting factors that are not considered in LDPs in other countries. For instance, Islamic values are intensely rooted in the cultural values of societies in the Middle East and Islamic values are not considered in the LDPs designed only for Western countries (ElKaleh & Samier, 2013). According to Ali (1995), most organisations in Arab countries develop their curricula and programmes by copying Western theories and models. These theories have been developed based on research studies conducted for Western countries and may not be applicable to Arab countries where Muslims get their cultural roots and practices from Islam (ElKaleh & Samier, 2013).

Bass and Stogdill (1990) found that cultural differences affect managerial behaviours, preferences and attitudes. Further, Pasa (2000) argues that managerial attitudes, behaviours, values, and efficiency vary across national cultures. Accordingly, effectiveness of leaders might differ significantly as a result of the cultural context in

which the leader functions. Fitzgerald (2007) argues that American, Chinese and French managers do not have the same leadership styles or manners.

Present-day evidence is insufficient for predicting the effectiveness of leadership development programs across cultures (Day, 2000; Collins & Holton, 2004). The exposure of Chinese to Western theories and practices in LDPs has been noted to raise issues of relevance and understanding (Currie, 2007; Tsui, 2006). Some recent research supports the claim that multisource feedback has different effects in different cultures (Shipper, Hoffman, & Rotondo, 2007). That is why leadership training, measurement and feedback need to be adapted locally to be successful. According to Bass and Stogdill (1990), there are two main trends in the cross-cultural leadership literature. First, in multiple national settings, the application of Western leadership theory was noted. Second, substantial effort was made to highlight the leadership styles and requirements of smaller groups of nations with unique cultural norms. As leadership development becomes prevalent around the world, it is very important to understand the expectations of leadership development programs and the needs of participants and to take account of cross-country differences (Gentry et al., 2014). Further research is needed that identifies the importance of national culture when using LDPs in the context of the UAE.

The majority of the insights and knowledge that make up the content of LDPs originated in research in the West, particularly in the United States (Rousseau & Fried, 2001) but, organisational research needs to take into account that people come from, and live in, different cultures (Rousseau & Fried, 2001). Thus, understanding the context of a country is crucial for leadership development.

Al Naqbi (2010) propose that leadership development programs are training programs that are precisely customized to meet individuals' needs to become better leaders. The participants in any LDPs can learn principles, skills and tools that they need to know as leaders. Accordingly, leadership development programs help participants to learn how to lead in a better way. Leadership development programs are widely used in developed countries such as Canada, the USA, and the European countries because of the benefits the programs bring. On the contrary, in the UAE, leadership development is a new concept, particularly in government organisations.

Research has investigated the forms of leadership development used in UAE organisations in both public and private sectors (Al Naqbi, 2010). The main purpose of the Al Naqbi study was to evaluate the effectiveness of LDPs: 360° feedback, mentoring, coaching, short training courses, executive education, succession planning, job assignments and action learning in organisations. In addition, it identified the method used by organisations for evaluating individual leadership and development. Al Naqbi recommends the improvement of LDPs by developing better leadership practices and by improving the current standards of LDPs. In addition, the author argues that the success of LDPs should be frequently compared with other international programs and contextualized to the UAE context. Such comparison can help achieve the desired outcomes of LDPs. This is done by applying the right assessment selection criteria when choosing candidates for the programs. Furthermore, careful thought needs to go into the design of the program and the methodology used in their implementation. These programs should provide leadership development practices that are more appropriate and effective within the context of the UAE. According to Day et al. (2014), the ultimate goal of most LDPs is to improve the effectiveness of leaders. Since learning transfer as one of the outcome of attending LDPs, it is important to look how other studies examined the effectiveness of LDPs and to determine the factors that can have an impact on learning transfer.

3.11 Measuring the effectiveness of LDPs

The ultimate target of most leadership development programs is to improve the effectiveness of leaders (Day et al., 2014). There are many studies (Leskiw & Singh 2007; Mathafena, 2007; Carbone, 2009; Al Suwaidi, 2012; Bond, 2013) that argue the importance of LDPs. For example, Leskiw and Singh (2007) argue that a successful leadership development program should have an effective evaluation system which measure the effectiveness of the program to fulfill the desired outcome. The evaluation must focus on the impact that LDPs have on an organisation's capability to function more strategically because of its leadership ability (Ready & Conger, 2003). According to Buckley and Caple (2004), the final stage in any training program must be to assess the effectiveness of the training program.

There have been several attempts to develop instruments to evaluate the effectiveness of LDPs (e.g Collins & Holton, 2004; Fullard, 2006; Black & Earnest, 2009; Carbone 2009; Gentry et al., 2014). For example, Black and Earnest (2009) introduced a comprehensive technique to measure and evaluate LDPs on a post-program basis that measures outcomes at the individual, organisational, and community levels. They used the W. K. Kellogg Foundation (WKKF) model to evaluate the results of one statewide leadership development program formed in 1985. Black and Earnest built on an assessment framework called EvaluLEAD introduced by Grove, Kibel, and Haas (2005). The study by Black and Earnest (2009) provided the first assessment of the effect of a leadership development program at the level of post-program evaluation. A comprehensive instrument, called the Leadership Program Outcomes Measure (LPOM), was employed in the study. Black (2006) developed the LPOM to gain insight into program accomplishments and alumni outcomes. The LPOM has vital implications for those who handle leadership development programs and who wish to assess the outcomes. Black and Earnest (2009) also developed a scale to measure the outcomes of leadership program after participants complete a program. The participants are asked to rate the results of their leadership program experience. Open-ended questions are included in the instrument to triangulate and validate self-reports. The outcomes of leadership programs were determined by using the framework for the EvaluLEAD (Grove et al., 2005).

A study conducted in the United States by Carbone (2009) presented an evaluation of an LDP which was conducted in a midsized architecture and engineering firm. The program underlined leadership involvement, program learning application, and continuing support for development. The evaluation of the leadership development program employed Kirkpatrick's (1994) model which included observations, group interviews, and individual interviews with participants, their supervisors, peers and subordinates. Carbone (2009) conducted the evaluation at the first three levels of Kirkpatrick's model to provide a measurement of the results of the leadership development program. The first level of Kirkpatrick's model is reaction, which was assessed based on the data given by participant interviews. During the interviews, participants were asked about their overall feelings of the program. The second level is learning with outcome assessed by asking participants about core-competencies,

particularly if they had any idea about of its meaning or had heard about it. Transfer is the third level of Kirkpatrick's framework and it was assessed by determining the extent to which participants experienced change and transferred knowledge after attending the program. The forth level of Kirkpatrick's is results but results were not determined. Carbone (2009) declared that most training efforts are not able to directly influence the forth level measures (Alliger, Tannenbaum & Bennett, 1997).

Previous studies on training evaluation have mostly focused on the extent to which organisations conduct evaluations at each of the four levels of Kirkpatrick's model (Saks & Burke, 2012). For instance, it has often been reported that many organisations evaluate reactions and learning while very few of them evaluate behaviour and results criteria (Blanchard et al., 2000; Kraiger, 2003; Sitzmann et al., 2008; Hughes & Campbell, 2009). According to Twitchell et al. (2000), only 31 percent of organisations used behaviour measures to evaluate technical training programs, and only 21 percent used results–performance measures. Twitchell concludes that "evaluation practices have not changed much in the last forty years" (p. 84). Most studies of the effectiveness of training have focused on levels one (reaction) and two (learning) of Kirkpatrick's levels of training. Little research has examined behaviour change (level three) through transfer of learning or the factors influence change. It is not possible to understand why learning transfer is not successful without understanding the factors that influence learning transfer.

Most studies have focused on using different instruments to measure the effectiveness of training program such as LDPs. Practitioners and training specialists and have always sought to develop methods to improve the effectiveness of training programs (ÇİFCİ, 2014). It is argued (Holton, 2000) that the effectiveness of a training program is measured by the trainee's motivation to transfer learning at the workplace. In addition, Tonhauser & Buker (2016) argue that the investment in training program measures can only be considered effective if the skills learned can be transferred successfully on the job.

In addition, there have been other evaluation models such as the Tyler Model which was developed by Ralph Tyler in the 1940's, and often referred to as the "Objective Model". The Tyler Model emphasizes consistency among objectives, learning experiences, and

outcomes. The Tyler model included four main parts. The first part is to define the objectives of the learning experience. The second part is to identify learning activities for meeting the defined objectives. Then, to organise the learning activities for achieving the defined objectives. The last part is to evaluate and assess the learning experiences (Keating, 2006). However, there are several criticisms of Tyler Model for example it is narrowly interpreted objectives. It is also a problematic and time consuming construction of behavioral objectives. Moreover, problem solving, critical thinking, and value obtaining processes cannot be clearly confirmed in behavioral objectives (Prideaux, 2003).

Furthermore, naturalistic evaluation is another approach developed by Guba and Lincoln in the 1980s. It is a different evaluation paradigm, which highlights the negotiation of multiple, socially constructed realities; the interdependence of values and facts; and the emergent character of the evaluation process (Guba & Lincoln, 1989).The qualitative methods are usually used in naturalistic inquiry rather than quantitative. Interviews and participant observation are the two main data sources in naturalistic inquiry. In naturalistic inquiry, the investigator generally attempts to observe the behavior of individuals in everyday settings (Odom & Shuster, 1986). The objective of participant observation is to permit the "investigator to enter the lives of persons being studied as fully and naturally as possible" (Edgerton, 1984, p. 498).

Another evaluation model is the Stufflebeam's (2003) Context, Input, Process, and Product (CIPP) model, which is used as a guiding framework for service-learning projects. The CIPP model is "a comprehensive framework for conducting formative and summative evaluations of projects, personnel, products, organisations, and evaluation systems" (Stufflebeam & Shinkfield, 2007, p. 325). The CIPP evaluation model is one of the most widely applied evaluation models, and belongs in the improvement/accountability category. The context evaluation component of the Context, Input, Process, and Product evaluation model is noted to help classify community's needs and the service providers' learning needs. Next, the input evaluation component can help prescribe a responsive project that can best address the identified needs. Then, the process evaluation component can monitor the project process and possible procedural barriers, and can identify needs for project adjustments. Lastly, the

product evaluation component interprets, measures, and judges the outcomes of the project and interprets their merit, interprets, worth, significance, and probity. The CIPP evaluation model is suited for assessing emergent projects in a dynamic social context (Alkin, 2004). In addition, Stufflebeam believes the most fundamental purpose of the CIPP model is "not to prove, but to improve" (Stufflebeam & Shinkfield, 2007, p. 331).

This present study considers learning transfer as one of the outcome of attending LDPs. Baldwin and Ford (1988) define transfer of learning as the degree to which trainees effectively apply knowledge, skills, and attitudes acquired in a training program to on-the-job work performance. However, there are several factors that impact on learning transfer, and the participants of LDPs should realize how these factors can be interpreted and have the ability and motivation to transfer learning.

3.12 Learning transfer

Learning is defined as both a process and an outcome that brings about an evident and continuing change in behaviour or knowledge (Botma, 2013). Thus, transfer is described as the ability to apply the skills learned to new tasks and situations. Learning transfer has been a long term area of research in education and psychology (Grose & Briney, 1963; Holton et al., 2000; Dirani, 2017). The history of transfer research goes back more than 100 years, with scholars debating the contexts, nature, and prevalence of transfer (Barnett & Ceci, 2002). Transfer was originally defined as the extent to which learning of a response in one situation influences the response in another situation (Adams, 1987). Research on training transfer remains one of the more universal areas in the literature of human resource development and training (Hutchins et al., 2013).

The fundamental assumption of Learning Transfer, Training Transfer, or just Transfer, is that an individual's performance is improved through well-defined training programs (Burke & Hutchins, 2007). Hence, transfer of training refers to the degree to which knowledge, skills and competencies that are learned during training are practised on the job (Baldwin & Ford, 1988; Burke & Baldwin, 1999; Day, 2000; Day & Goldstone, 2012; Holton, Bates, & Ruona, 2000; Saks & Burke, 2012). There is an inconsistency in the the literature in the use of the terms learning and training. Some scholars use training and then refer to transfer of training, while others use learning and thus learning transfer. Although learning and training are related, they are not the same. An individual

is trained in order to learn something new (Salas, Tannenbaum, Kraiger, & Smith-Jentsch, 2012). There is also a difference between training and development, Goldstein and Ford (2002) defined "Training" as a systematic approach to learning and development in order to improve the effectiveness of individuals, teams, and organisations. According to Meyer, Opperman and Dyrbye (2003:p.160), "training is a programme that assists the learners in acquiring specific skills that they can effectively apply to a very specific job or task". On the other hand, development refers to activities leading to the acquisition of new skills or knowledge for purposes of personal development (Goldstein & Ford, 2002) and has a long-term orientation. Development, "is an act or process of developing a gradual unfolding or growth in an individual" (Garavan, 1997, p.40).

In this present study, the researcher used the term learning transfer. Broad and Newstrom (1992) describe learning transfer as an effective and continuing application and transfer by learners of the skills and knowledge gained in training program to their jobs. According to Holton (2005), the role of learning transfer research is to formulate and recognize the process of learning and how learning can be transferred in both individual and organisational contexts.

3.13 LDPs and factors affecting learning transfer

In organisational contexts, the paramount concern of any training program is to have a positive learning transfer, which leads to meaningful changes in work performance (Goldstein & Ford, 2002). A number of studies (Ford & Kraiger, 1995; Holton et al., 2000; Broad and Newstrom, 1992; Hutchins et al., 2013) have explored the factors that can have an impact on learning transfer. While many studies have been conducted to understand the process of learning transfer, conceptual models for understanding this process are limited (Velada et al., 2007). A multi-level, multistage process was developed by Kavanagh (1998) to help understand the complications of the learning transfer process. Precisely, Kavanagh suggests that learning transfer is influenced by a number of variables at different levels of analysis (e.g. individual, supervisor, workgroup and organisation) and in different stages in the process of learning (e.g. pre-training, training and post-training).

A comprehensive study by Baldwin and Ford (1988) examined the literature on the factors that have an effect on learning transfer. The Learning Transfer System Inventory (LTSI) was developed by Bates and Holton III to measure the factors that have an affect on learning transfer (Holton et al., 1997). The LTSI framework has four sets of factors: work environment, ability, motivation, and secondary influences. The motivation, ability and work environment factors directly influence individual performance, while the secondary influences are perceived to first influence motivation and then to affect individual performance. The LTSI model recognizes that the primary outcomes of training are learning, individual performance, and organisational performance. It is expected that an individual acquire learning during a training program. The factors that impact on learning transfer include the motivation to use knowledge skills abilities (KSAs), the ability of trainees to use KSAs at workplace, and the work environment which supports the use of KSAs.

Motivation

Motivation to transfer refers to the intensity, direction, and persistence of effort to gain the newly knowledge from a training program and to use the skills learned at the workplace (Noe, 1986; Salas & Cannon-Bowers, 2001). One of the factors that influences learning transfer is the motivation of trainees to transfer (Noe, 1986; Tannenbaum & Yukl, 1992). Many scholars (Baldwin & ford, 1988; Kozlowski & Salas, 1997; Naquin & Holton, 2002; Lunenburg, 2011) argue that the motivation of trainees to transfer the skills learned is essential for the effectiveness of training. Generally, motivation to transfer is to some degree depending upon the expectations of trainees that applying skills learned at the workplace will imporve their performance and that performance should lead to some type of outcome (Khasawneh, 2004). One of the key factors that can influence learning transfer is the expectation of the trainees about learning transfer. Vroom (1964) describes two key linkages that strengthen the motivation of individuals – these being expectancy, defined as the level of effort that individuals believe will lead to an actual outcome and instrumentality, defined as the expectation that the performance will lead to a certain expected outcome. Thus, more successful learners include those who feel that they can work better through utilizing learned skills on their jobs and when they do perform at expected levels it leads to commensurate outcomes. Therefore, expectancies have been operationalized under two

constructs: effort-performance expectancy and performance-outcomes expectancy. Effort-performance expectancy is the expectation that a particular effort will result in better performance, while performance-outcomes expectancy is the expectation that this action will result in some types of rewards (Lawler, 1973). Therefore, these constructs explains the expectancy theory, which is understood as a motivational aspect for an individual shown to be a predictor of transfer (Thierry, 2002; Ayers, 2005; Merriam & Leahy, 2005; Greenberg, 2011; Lunenburg, 2011).

A number of studies claim that motivation can have an affect on learning transfer (Froman. 1977; Eden & Ravid, 1982; Tannenbaum & Yulk 1992; Derk-Jan, Nijhof, Wognum, & Veldkamp, 2006), For example, Tannenbaum and Yulk (1992) argue for the importance of trainees motivation to apply the knowledge and skills they learn to the workplace.

Ability

The factors of ability refer to those elements that are existing in training programs and work environment that allow the trainees to transfer learning efficiently (Holton et al., 2000). Abillity factors consist of different elements: content validity, transfer of design, opportunity to use, and personal capacity for transfer. Content validity refers to"the degree to which trainees perceive that the content of training (KSAs) precisely reflects and meets actual job demands, and that materials and methods used in training are similar to that used in the real job setting" (Holton et al., 2000, p. 334). Transfer of design, as defined by Holton et al. (2000, p. 334), is "the degree to which training has been designed and delivered to give trainees the ability to transfer learning to the job". The opportunity to use the newly aquired skills during training on the job is another ability element that can have a direct effect on learning transfer (Baldwin & Ford, 1988). If a trainee is not permitted to apply the skills and knowledge learned at the wokrplace then their learning transfer will be ineffective (Noe & Ford, 1992). Personal capacity for transfer refers to the "extent to which individuals have the time, energy, and mental space in their work life to make changes required to transfer learning to the job" (Holton et al., 2000, p. 334). According to Khasawneh (2004), it is important for a trainee to have an opportunity to use newly learned skills at the workplace.

Work environment

Currently, most organisations attempt to capitalize on the initiatives of training so as to move their strategic agendas forward (Srimannarayana, 2016). These initiatives require the participants in training to take the skills learned back to the workplace and to practise the skills learned on the job (John-Paul Hatala & Fleming, 2007). However, the work environment is one of the major factors that affect application of learning at the workplace (Baldwin & Ford, 1988). Research (Ford & Quinones,1992; Quinones & Ford, 1995; Bates & Khasawneh, 2005; Burke & Hutchins, 2007) shows that the work environment has been recognised as one of the most important factors to influence the process of learning transfer. The work-environment includes different factors such as supervisory or peer support and resistance to change or openness to change (Baldwin & Ford, 1988).

Holton et al. (2000) describe supervisor support as the extent to which supervisors support and reinforce the use of newly aquired skills and knowledge to the job. Supervisory support has been classified as an essential work-environment variable that impacts on the process of learning transfer (Quinones, Ford, Sego, & Smith, 1995; Gregoire, Propp, & Poertner, 1998; Chiaburu & Marinova, 2005) and is well recognized as one of the most influential elements in learning transfer (Tannenbaum & Yukl, 1992; Chiaburu & Marinova, 2005; Lim & Morris, 2006). The supervisor is the one who controls the outcome expectations and who can provide feedback and reward to maintain the learning transfer (Kozlowski & Salas, 1997; Baldwin & Ford, 1988;). In other words, an employee can transfer the newly learned skills and knowledge to the workplace if there is sufficient support from supervisors (Colquitt, et al., 2000b; Wang & Wentling, 2001). Campbell and Cheek (1989) support the importance of the involvement of supervisors in learning transfer. They argue that without the support of supervisors, the transfer of newly learned skill on the job will be difficult. They also suggest that supervisors can help the trainees to do several tasks by assessing needs, defining objectives, establishing instructional strategies, performing training, and evaluating the effectiveness of training. Moreover, Cohen (1990) found that a trainee with a supportive supervisor attended a training program with stronger beliefs that the training will be beneficial and will have an improved chances of applying the skills learned to their job.

Peer support is another factor of the work environment and Holton et al. (2000) define it as the extent to which peers provide reinforcement and support the use of learning on the job. Both peer support and supervisory support have been recognized by several scholars as factors that facilitate learning transfer (Facteau et al., 1995; Holton et al., 1997; Kontoghiorghes, 2001; Holton, Chen, & Naquin, 2003). For example, Facteau et al. (1995) argue that managers who have support from their peers are more likely to report learning transfer. This supports the findings of Pea's (1987) that perceptions of support from both peers and supervisors contributed to learning transfer.

Resistance to change/openness to change refers to the degree to which trainees perceive their organisation and their work group as open to new ideas and support and invest in change (Donovan, Hannigan & Crowe, 2001).

3.14 Leadership styles and metacognition

Since the late 1940s, leadership research has moved gradually towards an understanding of leadership styles (Bryman, 1992). Leadership style is a variable that has received significant attention in the literature (Adeyemi-Bello, 2001). The common leadership styles that are found in the literature include charismatic, situational, autocratic, democratic, directive, coercive, affiliative, consultative and participative (Bryman, 1992; Jung & Avolio, 1999; Goleman, 2000; Coleman, 2005; Bass, 2008). Leadership styles represent essential aspect of leadership (Muhammad et al., 2009). Leadership style can be defined as patterns of emphases, indexed by the intensity of particular leadership behaviour, which a leader places on different leadership situations (Andersen, 2008; Casimir, 2001). On the other hand, Eagly and Johannesen-Schmidt (2001), define leadership style as a "relatively stable pattern of behaviour exhibited by leaders" (p.781). Hollander (1978) believes that leadership styles refer to the characteristics which are most typical across different situations. Yukl (1998) argues that there is no particular leadership style that works in every situation or organisation. A leader who can show a mixture of leadership styles is more effective in achieving the goal of the organisation (Goleman, 2000). Leaders usually present different leadership styles in organisations (Oshagbemi & Ocholi, 2005) and different leadership styles can have different influences on the motivation and performance of the subordinates in organisations (Jung & Avolio, 1999). Researchers support that there is a relationship

between leadership and performance and emphasise that the correct leadership style can improve organisational performance (Northouse, 1997; Antonakis & House, 2004). Furthermore, a number of studies (Mumford, Zaccaro, Harding, Jacobs, & Fleishman, 2000; Zaccaro & Klimoski, 2001; Day & Halpin, 2004) have recently argued that leadership involves a complex mix of cognitive, behavioural, and social skills that may develop at different rates and involve different learning experiences. Leadership development programs commonly focus on developing the skills of leaders that may require potential leaders to take proactive steps and require the leader to have interest and motivation to apply the skills learned (Chan & Drasgow, 2001). According to Avolio and Bass (2004), the best leaders usually use a full range of leadership styles, Transformational, Transactional and Laissez-Faire Leadership styles, as appropriate to the situation. However, different leadership styles have different impacts on learning (Somech, 2006).

Scholars have tried to identify the most appropriate leadership style for the organisations to achieve their goals (Tannenbaum & Schmidt, 1973). Leaders play a central role in organisations and they have a crucial role in building an effective learning atmosphere and sustaining it (Imamoglu et al., 2015). Accordingly, leaders have different leadership skills with the different styles argued to have different impacts on organisational success (Caudell, 1994; Burke et al., 2006; Oke et al., 20009).

As mentioned in chapter 1, metacognition skill is an important concept in cognitive theory and is defined as a learner's awareness of his or her own process of learning (Lord & Hall, 2005). Some scholars (e.g. Gardner, Avolio, Luthans, May, & Walumbwa, 2005) claim that metacognition skills are the foundation to leadership development. Accordingly to (Lord & Hall, 2005), Metacognitive skills are essential for leaders who already have developed basic leadership skills. Because they have the ability to monitor and assess the effectiveness of the leadership approach that they are using. In addition, leaders can amplify learning from their experiences and adopt new strategies to enhance their effectiveness (Lord & Hall, 2005). Learners who have the ability to control their learning process are more likely to be effective in their leaning experiences (Flavell, 1979; Kuhn & Dean, 2004; Hanna, 2007). Metacognition has been demonstrated to be a relevant predictor of learning (Brown, 1978; Flavell, 1976; Glaser, 1990; Veenman & Elshout, 1995). According to Veenman et al. (2004), metacognitive

skills control an individual's learning activities. Participants who completed LDPs have already developed leadership skills that are supposed to be practised within or beyond the factors that can impact their learning transfer. Although leadership development is identified as a critical element for an organisation's long term success (Mumford et al., 2000; Collins & Holton, 2004; Avolio & Hannah, 2009; Day et al., 2014; Dinh et al., 2014), there are no general models for the development of leadership skills (Day, 2000; Yukl, 2002; Day & Halpin, 2004). Hence, leadership skills are conceptualised both in terms of how leaders use the skills and knowledge learned along with issues related to leadership. In the leadership domain, metacognition skills may address self-awareness and monitoring ability to practise the skills learned at workplace (Mumford et al., 2000; Day, Schleicher, Unckless, & Hiller, 2002). Increased self-awareness of one's learning processes also leads trainees to be more motivated and more effective with their learning experiences (Flavell, 1979; Kuhn & Dean, 2004; Hanna, 2007).

The majority of the studies that have investigated the relationship between leadership and performance have focused on the transformational leadership style (Ogbonna and Harris, 2000). It is argued that transformational leadership is one of the most popular approaches to leadership (Bass, 1995). According to Ruggieri et al. (2013), of the various leadership styles, transformational leadership is expected to be more effective in enhancing metacognitive skills. For example, transformational leaders, are able to reflect on their own learning and demonstrate competence for developing and enhancing metacognitive skills (Ruggieri et al., 2013).

Research has demonstrated that the literature of learning transfer is complex and is influenced by different factors. Based on the literature of learning transfer, ability, motivation and work environment variables are recognized as the factors impacting on learning transfer (Baldwin & Ford, 1988; Burke, & Hutchins, 2007; Blume, Ford, Baldwin, & Huang, 2010).

3.15 Summary of the review of the literature

The literature review discusses the the conceptualizaion of leadership across cultures. The review then identifies the factors that have the potenial to impact on learning transfer. The connection btween leadeship styles and metacogntions skills was also

introduced in this chapter. This present study aims to identify the factors of abililty, motivation and work environment that influence learning transfer. In addition, this reseach examines how leadership styles can influence the process of learning transfer.

The main objective of the first phase of the research is to identify the conceptualisation of effective leadership in Dubai government organisations. The second phase is to identify the expected outcomes from LDPs, and to identify the contents and conceptualisation of LDPs as implemented in Dubai government organisations. In addition, the study examines the factors that have an impact on learning transfer. The third phase examines the moderating impact that leadership styles and the work environment have on the relationship between the factors of ability, motivation and work environment that impact on learning transfer, and transfer effort-performance expectations and performance-outcome expectations.

Chapter 4: RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

This chapter describes the research methodology used in this study and justifies it use. To validate the underlying conceptualisation of the research strategy chosen, the study will be first located and justified within a broader framework. The study includes three distinct phases, each with a specific focus. The main objective of the first phase is to identify the conceptualisation of effective leadership in Dubai government organisations. The second phase is to identify the expected outcomes from leadership development programs (LDPs) and to identify the contents and conceptualisation of LDPs as implemented in Dubai government organisations. In addition, the study examines the factors that affect learning transfer. The third phase examines the moderating impact of leadership styles and work environment on the relationship between ability, motivation and work environment that impact on learning transfer, and transfer effort-performance expectation and performance-outcome expectations.

In this chapter, phases (1) and (2) are discussed in detail while phase (3) will be presented in Chapter 7. Finally, the research methodology and research method is discussed in more details to explain how the study was conducted taking in to account the issues of access, ethics, reliability and validity.

4.1 Paradigms

A paradigm is defined as the planning framework for the study process that may comprise research issues, methodology, models and assumptions (Neuman, 2006). The paradigm provides principles and guidelines for the researcher to follow (Ticehurst & Veal, 2000). Paradigm may be defined as "a loose collection of logically related assumptions, concepts, or propositions that orient thinking and research" (Bogdan & Biklen, 1988, p. 22).

4.1.1 Positivist

Positivism is an approach to social research that seeks to apply the natural science model of the research investigations of social phenomena and explanation of the social world (Denscombe, 2002, p. 14). The positivist approach defines and describes features

of reality by gathering numerical data on visible behaviours of the sample and by using data analysis (Gall, Borg & Gall, 1996). According to Sekaran and Bougie (2016), positivists focus on rigour, replicability of their studies, the reliability of observation and the generalisabity of results. A positivist paradigm frequently leads to quantitative research while an interpretive paradigm usually leads to qualitative research (Bryman, 1984).

4.1.2 Interpretivist

Interpretivism is an umbrella term for a range of approaches that reject some of the basic premises of positivism (Denscombe, 2002, p. 18). An interpretive paradigm discovers senses and interpretations by studying different cases intensively in a natural site and uses the data for analytic induction (Gall et al., 1996). Interpretivism is directed by the assumption that reality is socially constructed and hence is subjective and multiple (Creswell 2007; Hesser-Biber 2011).

For the present research, both positivist and interpretive paradigms were employed. Given that the nature of relationships in the proposed framework are in a new context (the Dubai government organisations), a mixed-method approach was used to collect data, with exploratory research in phase (1) and phase (2) and a quantitative study in phase (3). Specifically, this study started with qualitative interviews in phases (1 & 2). Thus, an interpretivist perspective was used in order to elicit meanings from participants and build a deeper understanding of effective leadership conceptualisation in Dubai government organisations. Drawing from a positivist approach, a quantitative survey was utilised to collect data in phase (3) to examine the moderating impact of leadership styles and work environment on the relationship between factors of ability and motivation and transfer effort-performance expectations and performance-outcome expectations. Creswell and Clark (2011) agreed that multiple worldviews can be used in mixed methods and they gave an example of using both constructivist and positivist worldviews in the same mixed methods study.

4.2 Research questions

A research question is a refined statement of the precise components of a problem (Malhotra, 1996). Furthermore, Johnson and Christensen (2008) declare that the

research design "should be planned and conducted based on what will best help you answer your research question" (p. 33). In addition, Edmondson and Mcmanus (2007) argue that a good research question focuses on a study and narrows the topic area to a meaningful, manageable size. In addition, it addresses issues of theoretical and practical significance. This study utilizes both a quantitative approach and a qualitative approach. These are relevant to the research topic and address the following research questions:

1. What are the conceptualisations of effective leadership in Dubai government organisations?
2. What are the expected outcomes of LDPs in Dubai government organisations?
3. Do leadership styles and work environment moderate the relationship between factors of ability and motivation that affect learning transfer and transfer effort-performance expectations and performance-outcome expectations?

4.3 Research design

A research design is a controlled set of coherent strategies or decision-making selections to help the generation of reliable and valid research outcomes (Cavana et al., 2001). The present study applies a mixed method approach, which has exploratory/qualitative phases followed by a quantitative phase with data collected through a questionnaire (see Figure 4.1). The main purpose of the study is to look at leadership development programs (LDPs) in Dubai government organisations and to examine the factors that influence learning transfer. The exploratory phases were divided into two, (phases 1 & 2) with ten interviews in each phase. In phase (1), ten participants (senior leaders) from Dubai government organisations were interviewed. In phase (2), ten interviews with training designers and key decision makers were conducted. Phase (3) was quantitative and the study utilized a survey with participants who completed leadership development programs of up to six months between 2012 and 2016.

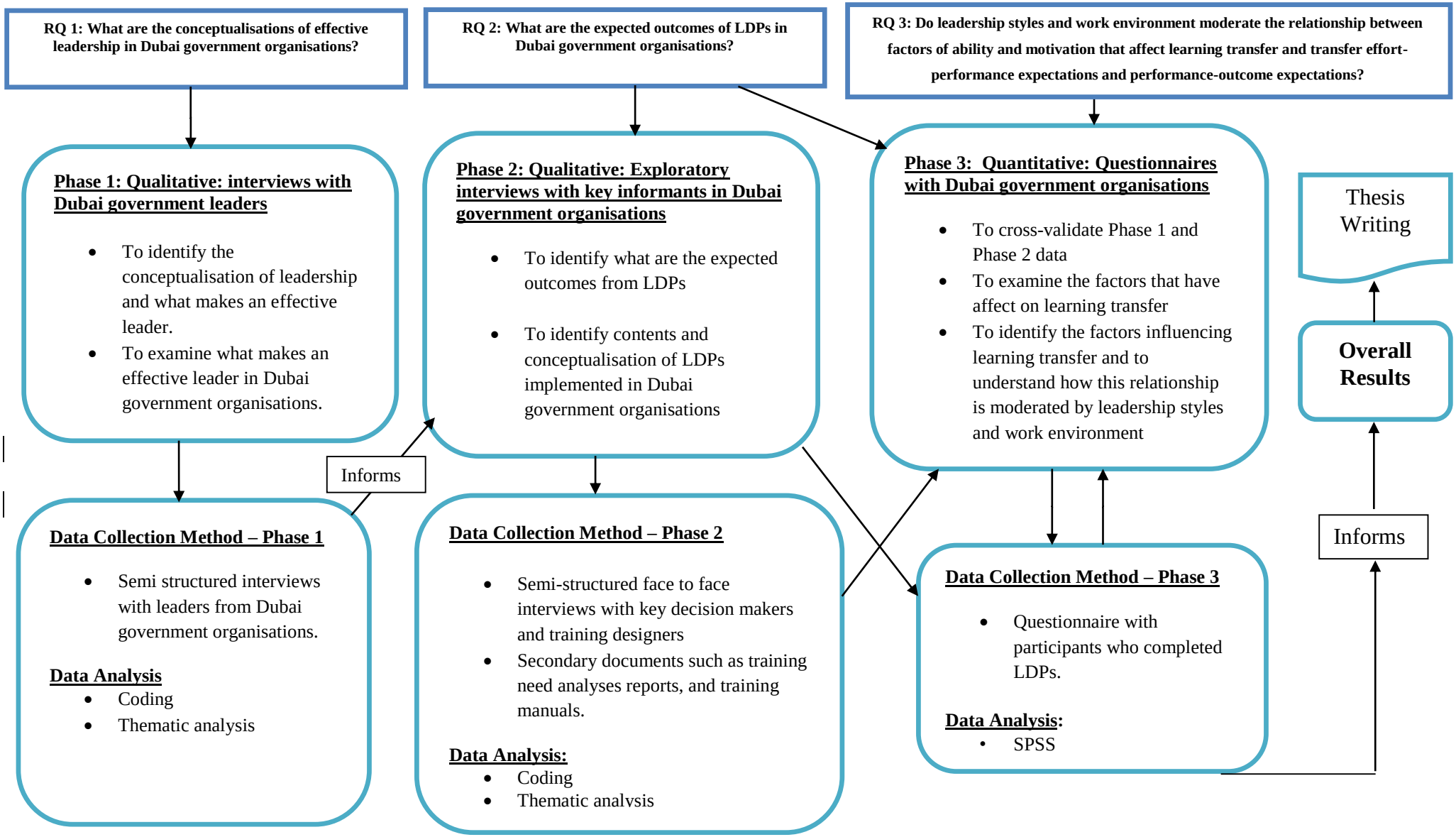


Figure 4.1: Research Design: Mixed methods

4.4 Justification for selection of exploratory research

The study used an exploratory/qualitative approach in phase (1) and in phase (2) as outlined in Figure (4.1). The aim of exploratory research is to examine a problem and to discover new ideas (Zikmund, 2000). According to Neuman (2006), preliminary ideas are developed by using exploratory research to help in investigating research questions.

According to Denzin and Lincoln (1994, p. 4), the word 'qualitative' implies an emphasis on the processes and meanings that are not rigorously measured. This methodology was chosen because it can support a good understanding of how leadership is conceptualised, provide insight and possible answers to some questions related to leadership conceptualisation, and identify the expected outcome of LDPs and the factors that affect learning transfer. One of the advantages of qualitative research is that it helps the researcher explore deeper experiences and understanding of participants (Corbin & Strauss, 2008). According to Harmon (1990), the qualitative approach contributes more to an understanding of the experiences and situations of the participants. A qualitative approach will provide an opportunity for participants to share their experiences in their own words, and thus will encourage the surfacing of rich descriptions (Alvesson, 2000; Alvesson & Skoldberg, 2000). In addition, the qualitative design allows investigation of the different topics that arise around the area of leadership development in Dubai government organisations. The qualitative approach is suitable for the first and second phases of the research because it provides rich information about leadership conceptualisation. Klenke (2008) argues that the study of leadership is particularly suitable for qualitative analyses because it offers improved chances to explore carefully the phenomena of leadership. The leadership phenomenon is described extensively and Klenke captures different opinions and perspectives (Geertz, 1973).

Qualitative research is interested in meaning and in how people make sense of their lives and experiences (Miles & Huberman, 1994). To apply qualitative methodology, the researcher goes physically to the participants' sites, and settings to observe and record the behaviour of people in their natural location (Myers, 2010). According to Bogdan and Biklen (1992), in qualitative analysis numerous simultaneous activities engage the researcher's attention: gathering data from the field, sorting the data into categories, structuring the data into a story, and scripting the

qualitative text. The unit of analysis is at the individual level and is based on participants' perceptions.

4.5 Justification for selection of quantitative research

Guided by a positivist paradigm, this study used a quantitative approach in phase (3). Data was collected through a questionnaire to examine if leadership styles and work environment moderate the relationship between factors of ability and motivation that impact on learning transfer and transfer effort-performance expectations and performance-outcome expectations. "The quantitative approach basically provides a wealth of facts about phenomena and involves statistical analysis" (Ticehurst & Veal, 2000, p. 20). Statistical evidence is used in the quantitative approach to build conclusions by testing hypotheses. The principle of statistical replication is used by the quantitative researcher who adheres to standardised methodological procedures, measures with numbers, and analyses the data (Kumar, 1996). Quantitative methods are ideally suited for determining what, who, where and when (Day, 1998) but they are unsuitable for the collection of behavioural and humanitarian aspects of data (Cohen et al., 2000). In addition, quantitative methods permit a broader study, facilitate a larger number of subjects, and improve generalisation of the results (Cohen et al., 2000). The questions that are used for quantitative methods should be direct and easily quantified, and should be available to a large sample of participants to allow reliable statistical analysis (Kruger, 2003).

4.6 Justification for the use of mixed methodology

Mixed methods research provides strengths that offset the weaknesses of both qualitative and quantitative study. This has been the historical argument for the use of mixed methodology research for more than 30 years (Jick, 1979). According to Creswell and Plano Clark (2011), mixed method research is practical in the sense that the researcher has the option to use all possible methods to address a research problem. In addition, it is considered practical because individuals tend to solve problems using both words and numbers, by combining inductive and educative thinking, and by employing skills in observing individuals and recoding behaviour (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011).

There are several advantages and disadvantages for both research methods and these should be recognised so that the most suitable method is applied. Because of its inductive and exploratory nature, a greater level of depth and detail is usually achieved with qualitative research than with quantitative techniques (Myers, 2010). Participants have the chance to discuss important issues rather than respond to closed questionnaires. In addition, confusion and ambiguities over concepts can be clarified and the attitudes of participants can be observed (Kruger, 2003). However, the interviewer can feel uncomfortable with this openness and interaction (Cohen et al., 2000).

In contrast, the use of quantitative research permits for better objectivity and accuracy of outcomes. In general, quantitative methods are designed to offer summaries of data that support generalisations about the phenomenon under study (Kruger, 2003). As well, quantitative methods provide for a broader study that includes a larger number of subjects, and enhances the generalisation of the outcomes (Cohen et al., 2000). Compared to qualitative methods, quantitative methods collect a much narrower dataset and the results are limited as they provide numerical descriptions instead of detailed narrative (Cohen et al., 2000).

To conclude, the advantages and disadvantages of quantitative and qualitative research methods have been described in this section. In quantitative research, the researcher has total control over the data collection types and the methods used for analysis. The benefit of qualitative research is that it provides an opportunity for participants to share their experiences in their own words and for the researcher to investigate different topics (Alvesson, 2000; Alvesson & Skoldberg, 2000). Furthermore, this present study deals with leaders from Dubai government organisations and the required information is only shared through official communication. This information required for the present study can only be found through face-to-face interviews with a number of leaders and training managers. The benefits of quantitative research lie in the ability of the researcher to summarise the results in statistically meaningful ways that allow the generalization of the findings to other populations. Bryman (2004) believes that findings of qualitative research of leadership are more credible when it is merged with the quantitative methods.

For this research, a mixed methods approach, which can support both a qualitative approach and a quantitative approach, is used to enhance the validity of the research (Onwuegbuzie & Leech, 2004). By using mixed a methodology, the researcher is able to take advantage of each approach and mitigate the disadvantages (Creswell, 2014).

All methods have strengths and weaknesses. By using both quantitative and qualitative data, the weaknesses of both methods are neutralized (Creswell, 2014). According to (Myers, 2010), triangulation is useful when the researcher wants to examine a certain phenomenon from different angles because triangulation allows the getting of a full picture of what is happening (Myers, 2010). Finally, both the qualitative approach and the quantitative approach are relevant to the topic of the study as the researcher uses both in-depth interviews and a questionnaire to address the research questions.

4.7 Data collection (phases 1 & 2 / qualitative)

Data was collected by using in-depth interviews, as it is the most commonly employed technique for collecting qualitative data. Berg (2004, p. 75) stated, "Interviewing as a conversation with purpose". The qualitative part of the research consisted of 20 interviews conducted in three different Dubai government organisations. In phase (1), the researcher interviewed ten leaders from Dubai government organisations from top management, middle management and first level management. In phase (2), ten participants who are key decision makers and training designers from three different training providers were interviewed. The main aim for selecting this group is to identify the expected outcomes from LDPs, and to identify contents and conceptualisation of LDPs as implemented in Dubai government organisations.

4.7.1 Justification for selection of in-depth interview instrument

An interview is defined as a face-to-face verbal interchange in which the interviewer attempts to draw information or expressions of views from the interviewee (Denzin, 1989). According to Casell and Symon (2004), interviews are usually preferable for exploring subjects where different levels of meaning need to be examined. In addition, interviews are more effective for collecting data because interviews allow the respondents to express their thoughts in descriptive details.

"The interview is not simply concerned with collecting data about life: it is part of life itself, its human embeddedness is inescapable" (Cohen et al., 2000, p. 267).

There are three types of interview used to conduct research: structured, unstructured and semi-structured (Marsh, 2002). According to Gratton and Jones (2004), a structured (standardized) interview comprises pre-established questions where the researcher reads aloud the questions from the interview protocol and writes the responses. All questions are asked in the same order and the context of each question is obvious (Klenke, 2008).

According to Polit and Beck (2004), an unstructured (non-standardized) interview is more like a normal conversation. An unstructured interview is chosen when the researcher does not have a clear idea about what to ask, or does not begin with a prepared set of questions. The interviewer has only a general idea of the subject to be covered and the interviewee tends to lead the direction of the interviews. The advantage of unstructured interviews is that issues that are more complex can be probed and answers can be explained (Klenke, 2008). The disadvantage with unstructured interviews is that it is time consuming and the interviewee tells their story with little interruption from the researcher (Polit & Beck, 2004).

According to Sheppard (2004), the semi-structured (semi-standardized) interview is less formal than structured interviews and has more focus than unstructured interviews. Semi-structured interviews can be conducted by telephone or face-to-face. There are several disadvantages of face-to-face interviews: cost and the lack of privacy and lack of anonymity. Interviewees might feel uncomfortable or embarrassed when the interviewer asks questions that relate to personal issues (Klenke, 2008). Another weakness is that bias or interviewer interests may have an effect on how the interviewees answer (Kumar, 2005). In addition, it can be difficult to gain an access or to arrange a mutual convenient time to conduct an interview with senior level staff (Bryman & Bell, 2007).

Given these advantages and disadvantages, in this study face-to-face semi-structured interviews were used because questions can be clarified for the interviewee and answers can be followed up as appropriate (Gillham 2000; Leedy & Ormrod, 2005). Greater breadth and depth of information

can be provided, (Klandermans & Staggenborg 2002), and face-to-face semi structured interviews it allows for in-depth exploration of respondent views (Sarantakos, 2005). As well, they permit the interviewer to rephrase the questions and make additional inquiry as the interview flows like a conversation (Klenke, 2008).

Semi-structured interviews were used in this research, as this would help the researcher to provide insight and possible answers to some questions related to this study. According to Edmondson and Mcmanus, "the key to good research lies not in choosing the right method, but rather in asking the right question and picking the most powerful method for answering that particular question" (1976:402). Semi-structured interviews include the use of some pre-formulated questions, but it is not necessary to adhere strictly to them and new questions might emerge during the interview (Myers, 2009). Interviewing is the most appropriate method to examine subjects where it is necessary to explore different levels of meaning (Casell and Symon , 2004). Sheppard (2004) claims that semi-structured interviews are less formal than structured interviews and allow for greater focus. Moreover, semi-structured interviews ensure that the participants answer all questions and do not receive assistance from others during the interviews (Barriball & While, 1994). According to Morse and Niehaus (2009), semi-structured interviews are usually used when the researcher has knowledge about the topic either from previous research or from the literature. The researcher can ask the participants all questions in the same order and propping questions can be asked for additional information. The interviewers are expected to probe within the response of each participant (Berg, 1989).

4.8 Data collection procedure (phases 1 & 2)

4.8.1 Ethics

Prior to the research, ethics approval was granted by the Social Sciences Human Research Ethics Committee at the University of Wollongong (approval number HE14/018 - see Appendix A). In addition, consent forms and participant information sheets were obtained from the participants and assurance was provided about confidentiality, anonymity, and security of the data. This process was necessary so that all participants had an idea about the study, understood the requirements, and knew that ethical standards were precisely observed (see Appendix B). The data were stored on a password protected in University of Wollongong in Dubai (UOWD)

computer, which is backed up to the UOWD server. The researcher was the only person, which had access to the data. The researcher made sure that anonymity was preserved and any details about the participants were removed.

Before starting the data collection process for phases (1) and (2), the researcher sought approval from Dubai government organisations to conduct the research. An initial letter was sent to the Human Resource director of each organisation requesting their voluntary participation in the study because human resource departments are responsible for this type of approval. All the required information regarding the research was sent to the organisations. Once the researcher received approval, potential participants were contacted by telephone to check on their availability. A consent form and interview questions were sent by email to potential participants so that potential participants understood the nature of the research and could provide informed consent. According to Bryman (2012), researchers asking for signed, informed consent from participants has become established practice within social science. The consent form included the research title and its purpose. The participants had to read this form carefully and sign it before starting the interview process. In addition, they read the participant information sheet that described the purpose of the research, the investigator's contact details, and methods and demands on participants. Moreover, it included the possible risks, inconveniences and discomforts. Benefits of the research and the interview questions were included. The interviews were conducted on different days (for a copy of the interview protocols, see Appendix C, and for the participation information sheets for phases (1) and (2) see Appendix B).

Confidentiality was ensured in this study. At the beginning of data collection process, a researcher should typically present confidentiality agreements because it is necessary to obtain informed consent to have the trust of participants (Crow, Wiles, Heath, & Charles, 2006). Only the researcher and the supervisors saw the data during the research period. The names of the participants were not shared with the participating organisations. Moreover, the researcher ensured that the names of the interviewees were not mentioned in the reporting of this research. To safeguard the confidentiality of the participants and their organisations, the researcher used different categories to identify organisations (such as Organisation A, Organisation B and Organisation C).

4.8.2 Interview process

The researcher conducted face-to-face interviews in private in participants' offices. The researcher made sure that interviews were held in a quiet and comfortable place that allowed ease of audio recording and ensured participants could discuss their experiences without distraction. Before interviews commenced, the researcher made sure to the participants were reassured that all data gathered from the interview would be confidential and would be analysed in a way that would not identify the participants or their organisations. Furthermore, the researcher informed the participants that their involvement in this study was voluntary and they could withdraw at any stage during the one-hour interview. The consent form and participant information sheet were given for the participants to be signed. At the start of the interview, the purpose of the study was reviewed and the confidentiality procedures were confirmed. The participants were given a chance to ask questions for further clarification.

4.9 Sampling strategy

Choice of sample size

A specific sample is chosen because it has particular characteristics, which will allow comprehensive exploration and understanding of the central themes and questions which the investigator wishes to study (Bryman, 2012). The exploratory research was conducted in Dubai government organisations and was divided into two phases as shown in Figure 3.1. Ten interviews were obtained to gather data for each phase. Creswell (1998) recommends that between five and twenty-five interviews are acceptable for a phenomenological study. Collection and analysis becomes difficult to manage if the sample size is larger than 50. Ten interviews from three different Dubai government organisations were conducted in phase (1). The participants included CEO's, directors, heads of sections and heads of units (see Appendix D). For the purpose of this study, the participants were categorized using codes. The main purpose for selecting this group from Dubai government organisations was because this study examined different areas in every phase. The focus of the study was Dubai government organisations and the researcher interviewed the leaders in these organisations. The purpose of the interviews in phase (1) was to define the conceptualisation of effective leadership in Dubai government organisations.

In phase (2), the researcher interviewed ten participants who were key decision makers and training designers (see Appendix E). The main aim for selecting this group is to identify the expected outcomes of LDPs and to identify content and conceptualisation of LDPs as implemented in Dubai government organisations. In terms of the sample size chosen for each phase, the researcher focused of the concept of data saturation. According to Guest et al. (2006), data saturation is a useful term in qualitative research as it is the point at which no new information is obtained from additional interviews. In any qualitative research, the idea of sampling until data saturation is reached can be used as a justification for the use of a specific sample size (Guest et al., 2006; Murphy et al., 2009; Schensul & LeCompte, 2010).

4.10 Interview protocol

An interview protocol is usually prepared for the collection of data (Johnson & Christensen, 2008). The researcher ensured that the developed interview protocol addressed the research objectives. According to Patton (2002), an interview protocol lists questions or issue used in the study. Cassel and Symon (2004), argue that an interview protocol should be prepared by the researcher in order to lead the conversation during the interview. The protocol is supplemented with probes, to be used to garner additional detail from the interviewees on specific points. An interview should remain focused on the topic while permitting enough conversation to allow interviewees the chance to discuss relevant topics in depth (Calder, 2005).

Because the respondents were able to understand and respond in English, the interviews in phases (1) and (2) were in English. According to Abdulla, Djebarni, and Mellahi (2011), the official language in the UAE is Arabic but the English language is also well understood and used widely for communication across the UAE. As a result, the researcher did not face any difficulties conducting the interviews in English. The interviews lasted for between 30 and 60 minutes. In-depth interviews usually last about 1 to 2 hours (Seidman, 2006). The interviews were audio taped, uploaded, backed up, and stored in a secure location. According to Mays and Pope (1995), one of the advantages of using audio tapes to record interviews is to improve rigour in the study. To avoid losing any data, it is very important to use a good quality tape recorder that has been tested (Eriksson & Kovalainen, 2016).

Interview Protocol (phase 1)

The interview protocol, drawn from key themes identified in the leadership literature, consisted of eight questions (see Table 4.1). The interview questions used in the study sought information about effective leadership conceptualisation in Dubai government organisations. The first questions for the first theme were designed to examine the validity of the Great Man theory (which argues that great leaders are born rather than made). The purpose of this question was to determine if leadership skills could be learned. The rest of the interview consisted of questions designed to identify leadership conceptualisation and the difference between leadership and management. In addition, specific questions were asked about the importance of cross-cultural understanding to discover if any other factors might affect leadership effectiveness within Dubai government organisations. Some questions looked at specific leadership challenges faced by Dubai government organisations and sought the most effective mechanisms used in LDPs to develop relevant leadership skills. To provide greater clarity and depth, and to encourage participants to have an engaging conversation, some additional probing questions were asked as needed. In addition to encourage participants to have an engaging conversation to one has to make sure they answer all questions successfully (Miles & Huberman, 1994).

Table 4.1: Questions developed for phase (1)

Questions	Referenced literature
What do you think of this statement that leaders are born, not made? Do you think leadership can be taught?	(Judge et al. 2002) Bass (1990)
How do you define leadership? How is leading different from managing?	Kotter (1990) Dickson et al. (2012) Mumford (2000)
Leadership is emphasized in the Strategic Plan for the Emirate of Dubai 2015. In your view, what is the relevance of leadership skills in Dubai government organisations?	Abbas &Yaqoob (2009) Mumford (2007)
Are there any specific leadership challenges faced by Dubai government organisations?	Avolio & Hannah (2009) Collins & Holton (2004)
To be an effective leader within Dubai government organisations, would one require cross-cultural understanding? How important are values and beliefs for effective leadership in Dubai government organisations?	Ali (1995) ElKaleh & Samier (2013)
Are there any other contextual considerations that might affect leadership effectiveness within Dubai government organisations?	Leskiw & Singh (2007) Wilson & Corrall (2008)
In your view, what are the most effective mechanisms by which UAE government organisations can develop the relevant leadership skills across multiple levels within the organisation?	Day (2000) Day et al. (2014) Pinnington (2011)

The first phase of the program provided the foundation that describes effective leadership conceptualisations in Dubai government organisations. The second phase built upon this foundation to identify the expected outcomes from LDPs and the contents and conceptualisation of LDPs as implemented in Dubai government organisations.

Interview Protocol (phase 2)

The interview protocol drawn from key themes from the LDPs literature consisted of ten questions asked of key decision makers and training designers (see table 4.2). The interview questions used in the study were to identify the expected outcomes from LDPs within Dubai government organisations, and to identify contents and conceptualisation of LDPs as implemented in Dubai government organisations. The first question was designed to look at the expected outcomes from LDPs and leadership skills that need to be developed. The second question focused on the implementation of LDPs and asked whether the LDPs were developed in-house or provided by outside vendors/external providers. The aim of this question was to determine the factors considered while designing and developing LDPs, and to identify the key people involved in designing LDPs. The third question was about participant selection. It asked if there was any training needs analysis conducted to choose participants and to discover how development program participants were selected. The fourth question was about evaluation of the effectiveness of LDPs. The fifth question looked at any challenges that Dubai government organisations face during implementation of LDPs. The next question focused on the cultural considerations or other contextual factors that might have an impact on the effectiveness of LDPs. The purpose of this question was to check if those factors are considered while designing LDPs. Another question concerned employees who have successfully completed LDPs and the kind of support they get from their organisations. The next question considered modifications that are made to organisational systems and processes, such as performance management systems and/or reward mechanisms, to facilitate learning transfer. Then there was a question to check if LDPs contributed to positive change within Dubai government organisations. The last question called for suggestions about how to improve LDPs as they are currently being practised. The researcher wanted to know if learning transfer occurs after attending LDPs and was interested in suggestions for improvement to LDPs. All interviews lasted 45 minutes to one hour and were audio taped.

Table 4.2: Questions Developed for Phase (2)

Questions	**Referenced literature**
What are the expected outcomes for LDPs within Dubai government organisations?	Carbone (2009)
Are the LDPs currently being implemented in your organisation, developed in-house or do you rely on outside vendors/external providers?	Al Naqbi (2010)
How do you choose your participants? Is a training needs analyses conducted? Are there any specific criteria or standards that determine the choice of participants?	Al Naqbi (2010) Leskiw & Singh (2007)
Do you evaluate the effectiveness of LDPs? If yes, how?	Day (2000) Carbone (2009)
Are there any challenges that Dubai government organisations face during implementation of LDPs? Please elaborate.	Al Naqbi (2010)
Do you think cultural considerations or other contextual factors might have an impact on the effectiveness of LDPs? If so, what are these factors specifically and how might they affect LDP effectiveness?	Leskiw & Singh (2007) Wilson & Corrall (2008)
How do you support the employees who have successfully completed LDPs?	Carbone (2009)
Are there any other modifications that are made to organisational systems and processes (such as performance management systems and/or reward mechanisms) to facilitate the enactment of effective leadership? If so, how?	Al Naqbi (2010)
In your experience, have you found LDPs contributing to positive change within your organisation? If so, how?	Carbone (2009) Al Naqbi (2010)
If you were given the opportunity to improve LDPs as they are currently being practiced, what would you do specifically? Could you please suggest any two interventions that Dubai government organisations could apply to improve the effectiveness of LDPs?	Carbone (2009) Al Naqbi (2010)

4.11 Data collection challenges

The researcher faced two challenges during the research period: access to organisations and access to individual respondents. First, the researcher faced some problems when approaching Dubai government organisations to obtain permission to conduct interviews with their leaders. As indicated earlier the UAE is considered as having high power distance. Because of the nature of the study (about leadership development programs), some organisations did not allow interviews with the researcher. One Dubai government organisation that has successful LDPs, refused to participate in the study. The researcher had to find other supportive organisations to participate.

Another challenge during the data collection process was to arrange access to individual respondents. The researcher found it difficult to arrange meetings with top management, such as CEO's, directors and head of sections, because they had busy schedules. The researcher had to find different ways to overcome the difficulties during the data collection process. Many meetings were postponed and the researcher had to arrange different timings.

In addition, the researcher had to look for strategies to assess the accuracy of the findings. According to Creswell and Miller (2000), one of the strengths of qualitative research is validity; whether the results are accurate from the perspective of the researcher and the participants. Terms such as authenticity, trustworthiness and credibility abound in the qualitative literature to address validity (Creswell & Miller, 2000). Real life is usually composed of different perspectives so the researcher has to ensure that any negative or discrepant information is presented in the findings. Adding and discussing the contrary information will increase the validly and credibility of an account (Creswell, 2014). As well, to avoid any mistakes during the transcriptions, a researcher has to review and check all the transcripts.

4.12 Data analysis

The QSR NVivo 10 software was used to code the data collected in phase (1) and phase (2). Nvivo is a coding system used for analysing data from interview transcripts and provided a good understanding of developing codes lists for the transcript (Weston et al., 2001). According to Creswell (2014), the most popular qualitative data analysis software programs are MAXqda,

Atlas, ti, and QSR Nvivo. All interviews were transcribed by the researcher who conducted the interviews for phase (1) and phase (2). Transcribing tape-recorded interviews takes usually a lot of time but it is a very good way to become familiar with the content of each interview (Eriksson & Kovalainen, 2016). The researcher reviewed all transcripts extensively and key themes were identified and classified as suggested by the established literature (see Appendix F).

Coding is analysis that involves distinguishing and combining data that have been retrieved and reflecting on what was done with the information (Miles & Huberman, 1994). The framework of the coding reflected the structure of the interview questions. According to Rossman and Rallis (2012), coding is the process of organising data by connecting chunks and writing a word that represents a category in the margins. In a qualitative study, not all of the data can be used and the researcher needs to "winnow" the data (Guest, MacQueen, & Namey, 2012), which is a process of concentrating on some of the data and ignoring other parts of it. Creswell (2013) argues that the impact of this process is to combine data into a small number of themes (perhaps five to seven). According to Creswell (2014), the basic process in reporting the findings of any qualitative study is to develop descriptions and themes from the data. The researcher captured major themes that are supported by diverse quotation and specific evidence (see Appendix F). In addition, information about each participant was included in a table (See Appendix D and Appendix E).

4.13 Chapter summary

This chapter has described the research design and data collection methods for the two qualitative phases. It outlined the data analysis procedure and the steps taken to guarantee the reliability and rigour of this study. The findings of the analysis are discussed in the following chapter.

Chapter 5: DATA ANALYSIS (PART 1)

This chapter is divided into two parts that will outline the research findings for the phase (1), and phase (2). The findings from these exploratory qualitative phases are used to inform the quantitative measures obtained in phase (3). The first phase of the study provided the conceptualisation of effective leadership in Dubai government organisations. The second phase identified the expected outcomes from LDPs and the contents and conceptualisation of LDPs as implemented in Dubai government organisations. The third phase is to identify the factors that influence learning transfer.

5.1 Qualitative findings

In the following section, the study will outline the interview responses and the qualitative data from the response is presented.

5.1.1 Part one: Phase (1)

The first phase of the research involved ten respondents (2 female, 8 male) who included CEOs, directors, head of sections and head of units from Dubai government organisations. In terms of number of years of service, most of the respondents had more than 15 years' experience while only one participant had a six years' experience. The majority of respondents were highly educated; eight out of ten respondents had earned postgraduate degree while two out of ten respondents had earned undergraduate degree. For analysing the results, the respondents were categorized according to codes. The results that were collected through the interviews were grouped into the following six major themes that emerged from the eight questions asked, as well as other information provided in order to demonstrate the insights of the of the different interviewees.

Theme 1: Leaders are born not made

Theme 2: Leadership conceptualisation

Theme 3: Leadership skills

Theme 4: Contextual consideration in LDPs

Theme 5: Leadership challenges

Theme 6: Effective mechanisms in LDPs

The important themes that appeared from the interviews are explored in detail in the following section.

Theme 1: Leaders are born not made

The main purpose for this theme is to check the perception of leaders whether leaders are born not made. The responses were analysed to discover if leadership can be learned and to determine if there is a need for LDPs in Dubai government organisations.

A study by Hernez-Broome and Hughes (2004) furthers our understanding of the nature of leadership development. It was thought for many years that leadership for some people comes naturally and cannot be learned. However, the 2004 study found that leadership can be learned, and that leaders believe it is essential to continue growing and developing. According to Mathafena (2007), training someone to be a leader does not happen quickly. Leadership training is a slow process that develops with experience and time. It simply provides guidelines for developing people, their visions and their interactions with others. Furthermore, Hurt and Homan (2005) suggest that leadership development is analogous to growing a garden; a solid foundation of soil is required, along with nutrients and a weed-free environment to convert seeds into fruitful plants. Successful leaders must learn to develop new traits that encourage subordinates to accomplish more (Kouzes & Posner, 2002).

Eight of the ten respondents in the present study agreed that leaders are born but also agreed that leaders can be made by developing certain leadership skills. This finding aligns with the Great-Man theories (Judge et al., 2002), that great leaders are born, not made. Later research suggests that leadership can be learned (McCauley et al., 1998; Northouse, 2006), and individuals are able to act as leaders (Northouse, 2006). Two respondents disagreed with the statement that leaders are born, not made. They argued that leadership could be learnt through certain LDPs. The majority of interviewees responded and gave supporting practical examples. For example, one of the respondents mentioned that:

> *"Leadership can be taught, can be inherited, can be gained".*

Another respondent said:

> *"to be honest with you, first of all I disagree with this statement because, in my point of view, leadership skills can be developed through certain training courses, through certain experiences that the leader can face it the work place or in his own life. So my point of view that yes the leadership skill can be taught can be developed through years of the work experience and I do not think so it is born. Everybody has the base of to be a leader but he has to develop himself. For example, if somebody born as they mentioned as a leader but he didn't develop his skills he didn't develop himself regarding the development in his environment around him, he will not be capable to reach that level to be a leader in his life. So I think that the leadership can be developed "*

Another respondent also noted that

> *"first of all let me clarify that when we say some leaders are born it's like we are talking about human nature. When you look to some people personality easily you can tell that it's impossible for this person to become a leader. Also, some of our leaders are very well educated but still they are missing a lot of characters where they can be leaders within these all of challenges nowadays. Answering the question if leaders are born not made, it is possible to teach people how to be leaders. We can teach a lot of subjects and issues theories regarding leadership but if the person himself is not ready, not able, it is impossible to make him a leader. It's possible to make him a manager to manage, organise, and coordinate but not to lead".*

Some researchers suggest that leadership is about 30% heritable and 70% developed (Arvey, Zhang, Avolio, & Krueger, 2007; Avolio, Rotundo, &Walumbwa, 2009). For example, Avolio et al. (2009), discuss the statement "leaders are born not made". An Avolio study involved the study of identical and fraternal twins. Preliminary evidence, using a behavioural genetics approach, has revealed that about 30% of the variation in leadership style and emergence is accounted for by heritability while the remaining variation is attributed to differences in environmental factors, such as a person having different role models and initial opportunities for leadership development (Arvey et al., 2007). Identical twins have 100% of the same genetic makeup and fraternal twins

share about 50%. The researchers were able to control for heritability to observe how many leadership roles the twins had over their respective careers. The study concludes that the life context one grows up in, and later works in, is much more influential than heritability in developing leadership emergence across the career of an individual.

In this present study, two respondents out of ten did not agree with the statement that "leaders are born, not made". For instance, one of the participants said that:

> "*Leadership skills can be developed through certain training courses".*

The participant mentioned the importance of LDPs, for the development of leadership skills. According to Carbone (2009), it is essential to consider the existence of LDPs. Carbone adds that if leadership cannot be learned, then LDPs would not have value. In addition, Collins and Holton (2004) argue that an organisation's long-term success is strongly connected with its ability to create effective and competent leaders. Many Dubai government organisations in the UAE consider it necessary to develop effective leaders and seek out successful LDPs. The findings overall suggest that senior managers of UAE organisations support the role of LDPs in facilitating leadership development.

Theme 2: Leadership conceptualisation

This theme mainly focused on effective leadership conceptualisations in Dubai government organisations. In addition, the differences between leadership and management were identified. The theme evolved as a direct result of answers to the first research question, what are the conceptualisations of effective leadership in Dubai government organisations?

Over the years, leadership has been studied widely in different contexts and with different theoretical foundations. In some cases, leadership has been described as a process, but most research and theories on leadership look at individuals to gain understanding (Bernard, 1926; Blake, Shepard & Mouton, 1964; House & Mitchell, 1974; Drath & Palus, 1994). Leadership studies have spanned across cultures, decades, and theoretic beliefs (Horner, 1997).

Leadership is conceptualised differently across cultures. Dickson et al., (2012) define leadership as an ability that is enacted, created and developed differently across cultures. As a result, leadership is conceptualised differently across cultures and this was obvious in the interviews when the participants defined leadership. Also, leadership "is the ability of an individual to influence, motivate, and enable others to contribute toward the effectiveness and success of the organisation" (House et al., 1999, p. 184).

Some definitions of leadership that emerged from the interviews are:

1. *A leader is a person who inspires his employees, to do the best, who motivate his employees.*
2. *Leadership is inspiring others to perform.*
3. *A leader who works as a team with his team even practice of what they are doing.*
4. *Leaders they look into the people first and they will teach his people inspire them how to achieve those goals.*
5. *Leadership, I would say inspiration and motivation, a leader who can inspire his people motivate them he is a leader.*
6. *A leader who motivate his employees, who really can lead.*
7. *I think a leader is a person who has the ability to take initiatives makes decision.*
8. *A leader can manage the situations who can take the responsibilities of his own mistakes and his people mistakes, he can find solutions.*
9. *A leader who is good listener good speaker.*
10. *Leadership is the one who understands his employees. All leadership is listening.*
11. *I think a leader is a person who has the ability to take initiatives, make decision, lead people for solutions, new innovative and creative ideas.*
12. *The leader could be cookers, could be a cleaner, could be helper, could be a servant. To serve his servant.*

The research of leadership is a complicated endeavour. As many have noted (e.g., Bass, 1997; Chemers, 1997), there is no consistently agreed-upon definition of leadership.

The project GLOBE was developed by a large multinational team of leadership scholars. The leadership definition they adopted was intentionally broad because of the recognition that leadership is enacted differently. The evaluative and semantic interpretation, and the cognitive prototypes that define leadership, are likely to be different across cultures (Den Hartog, House, Hanges, Ruiz-Quintanilla, & Dorfman, 1999; Hanges, Lord, & Dickson, 2000; House et al., 2002; Javidan, Dorfman, de Luque, & House, 2006). There were several attempts to understand how leadership conceptualisations differ across cultures (Lonner, 1980; Hofstede, 1983; Smith & Bond, 1993; Bass, 1997; House et al., 2002). These studies focused on identifying the characteristics of leadership that are universal and those that are country specific. Bass (1997) explained that universal means universally applicable conceptualisations. Bass added that some universal concepts can be influenced by country specific values, cognitive schemas, or behaviours. This shows that leadership can be enacted differently across different cultures.

This present study also asked the respondents for examples of who is an effective leader for them. Most of the respondents mentioned about Prophet Muhammad peace be upon him. For example, one the participant said:

> "*If we talk about leaders, let's remember our prophet Mohammed peace be upon him. He had a vision and he started even during the time that we haven't got Harvard universities and which means he did not study but he still had very clear vision. He put targets for Islam and distributed among all the nations and the whole world "*

The finding shows that most respondents return to their religions, cultural values and customs when choosing an effective leader. This respondent believed that it is important to return to the Islamic values that are intensely rooted in the cultural values of societies in the Middle East (ElKaleh & Samier, 2013). As mentioned, leadership is conceptualised differently and so, in terms of Islam, leadership is defined as a trust and a responsibility (Ahmed 2009; Ali 2009; Faris & Parry 2011) rather than as a privilege. The respondents showed how they define leadership, and who the real model for being an effective leader is, when they talked about Prophet Muhammed and the responsibility that he had and how he has accomplished it.

Other respondents mentioned the Vice-President, Prime Minister and Ruler of Dubai, Sheikh Mohammed bin Rashid Al Maktoum as an effective leader:

> *"A very good example you can take from Sheikh Mohammed, he is one of the strongest leaders, the strongest among the world".*

> ***"**We have a role model or a very good example sheikh Mohammed bin Rashid. He has a vision and he inspires people, motivate them and people are following him and Dubai local government, they teach his vision and mission".*

The examples and definitions illustrated in this theme, show how leadership is conceptualised differently. The following table (5.1) links the definition of leadership with the most suitable leadership theories:

Table 5.1: Leadership conceptualisations

Leadership theories	Definitions by participants
Transformational leadership (Avolio et al., 1999) • Talks optimistically about the future • Inspire others • Lead by example • Teamwork • Motivate	• *A leader has always positive energy* • *A leader encourages them for creating ideas* • *A leader is a person who inspire his employees, to do the best who motivate his employees* • *Leadership is inspiring others to perform* • *Inspiring people, consistency, the ability of convincing people the right judgment those are the common characteristics which where all leaders should have* • *A leader who work as a team with his team even practice of what they are doing* • *Leaders they look into the people first and they will teach his people inspire them how to achieve those goals so what's more important for leaders to qualify those people how to believe into themselves that they are able to achieve to achieve those targets* • *Leadership I would say inspiration and motivation, a leader who can inspire his people motivate them he is a*

	leader this is leadership. • *A leader who motivate his employees, who really can lead and* • *A leader should be committed and the commitment comes first with the respect.* • *Motivation is a key for success a leader who motivate the staff* • *Leaders they look into the people first and they will teach his people inspire them how to achieve those goals so what's more important for leaders to qualify those people how to believe into themselves that they are able to achieve those targets.* • *I should teach my subordinates how to achieve their goals I should lead them not manage them I should lead them into achieving their goals tell them how to do it.* • *Great leader they always have a vision they have a clear way where they want to be you know they can let others to follow them they can influence the others they can teach the others how to go forward you know once you have this skills and you have this clear vision and you can influence others to be with you then he will be a leader.* • *I believe that leaders are more visionary are more open minded are always looking for out of the box they don't like to be tied with the routine or with the rules and regulation.*
Transactional leadership (Avolio et al., 1999). • Makes clear what is expected to achieve • Directive • Keep tracks all mistakes • Providing personal rewards	• *A leader is who is directive.* • *A leader who can manage the work.* • *Giving direction to the group to achieve goals.* • *A leader who provide clear directions and instructions.* • *A leader is a person who can manage the situations and who can take the responsibilities.*

	• *A leader who set goals and provide feedback on performance.*
Servant leadership (Greenleaf, 1991).)	• *The leader could be cookers could be a cleaner could be helper could be a servant. To serve his servant.* • *If there are not satisfied if you are not a good listener to them if you don't take their suggestions their complains into consideration then you are not customer oriented.* • *The major or the biggest part of those organisations they are service organisation serving people alright to be good to provide better service you have to know that your customer satisfied or not so in the cease you need better communication skills and better customer service skill.* • *As government of Dubai mostly its service organisations and then customer oriented skills is very important for these governments.*

From these results and the literature reviewed, transformational leadership appears to be the style reflected by the senior leadership in Dubai government organisations. Also, the results in phase (1) showed that the characterises of most participants who conceptualised leadership are similar to transformational leadership style. According to Dvir et al. (2002), the transformational leadership style tends to be more effective than other leadership styles (Dvir et al., 2002). As mentioned in the literature review chapter, the theory of transformational leadership was introduced by Burns in 1978 and argues that leaders and subordinates connect in a social exchange to attain a desired target. Burns is of the view that a transformational leader is someone who elevates subordinates and him/herself to a higher level of inspiration and morals. Examples of transformational leaders are Mahatma Gandhi, Winston Churchill, Nelson Mandela and Shaikh Mohammed bin Rashid Al Maktoum. Each of these leaders had the capacity to motivate and inspire others. According to Hernez-Broome and Hughes (2004) transformational leadership provide compelling visions of a better future and encourage trust in apparently unshakeable self-confidence and conviction. In addition, the findings in the present study showed that transactional leadership and servant leadership appeared to be another styles reflected by few senior leaders.

Transactional leadership style promotes performance and defines expectations while servant leadership focuses on authenticity, humility, and interpersonal acceptance (Stone et al., 2004). According to Faris and Barry (2011) leadership cannot be studied out of context. In spite of the transformational leadership, transactional leadership or servant leadership styles that people might attempt, the context decides how successful that leadership style will be. The transactional, transformational and servant leadership styles were further explored by asking respondents about their understanding of the difference between leadership and management.

Theme 2: Leadership and management

Leadership and management are different terms that can be confused in practice but it is important to distinguish between them. Leadership can be defined as the ability to inspire self-confidence in people and support them to achieve the goals and vision of an organisation. Management can be defined as directing people based on principles or values which have already been established by the organisation (Kim & Maubourgne, 1992). The present study also asked the respondents about the difference between leadership and management. The purpose of this question was to make sure that the participants are aware of the differences. The responses showed that the majority of the respondents understand the difference between leadership and management. They defined leadership as inspiration, motivation, influence, vision and willingness to take responsibility. This supports the definition of leadership as "the capability to influence, inspire, and enable others to have a contribution toward the efficiency and success of the association" (House, Hanges, Ruiz-Quintanilla, Dorfman, Javidan, Dickson, et al., 1999, p. 184). On the other hand, most respondents defined management as controlling policies, documents and producers, and that management is about working per regulations, rules and systems. This supports Kotter (1990) who asserts that management is the ability to master complexity and the aim of good management is to maintain order and constancy by producing formal plans, designing suitable structures in the organisation, and monitoring outcomes against plans. According to Hanbury, Sapat and Washington (2004, p. 568) "leaders are people who do the right thing but managers are people who do the thing right. Both roles are crucial, but they differ profoundly".

This finding of the present study therefore supports Hogan's argument (1994) that managers can demand others to perform their tasks because of their position of power but they are not necessarily leaders. True leadership occurs when others willingly accept, for a period of time, the aims of the leader as their own. Therefore, leadership is concerned with developing consistent and goal-oriented teams (Hogan, 1994). Leaders establish a vision for the future of their organisations and align workers and resources with that vision by using a range of techniques (Kotter, 2001). Most of the respondents supported Kotter's view. One respondent stated that:

> *"Leaders they look into the people first and they will teach his people inspire them how to achieve those goals so what's more important for leaders to qualify those people, how to believe into themselves that they are able to achieve those targets".*

Another said:

> *"A great leader they always have a vision, they have a clear way where they want to be. They can let others to follow them, they can influence others, they can teach others how to go forward"*

Theme 3: Leadership skills

Leaders, no matter how gifted, firstly enter organisations as novices and lack basic concepts that give them an understanding of the work, leadership roles and organisational contexts (Mumford et al., 2000). Therefore, the development of leadership skills is important. Researchers have shown that leadership skills can be developed if a leader wants to be effective in today's marketplace (Gunn, 2000; Wells, 2003; Conger & Ready, 2004).

One of the respondents mentioned the importance of building future leaders with the right skills and capabilities. This respondent also mentioned our great leaders Shaikh Zayed bin Sultan bin Zayed Al Nahyan, President of the United Arab Emirates, and His Highness Sheikh Mohammed bin Rashid Al Maktoum, Vice President and Prime Minister of the United Arab Emirates and Ruler of Dubai. The majority of respondents confirmed the importance of focusing on potential leaders and the right leadership skills so as to achieve the goals of the UAE vision 2021.

As noted by one of the respondents:

> *"Our former builder of UAE Sheikh Zayed said we should focus on people, not on machinery or on fuel, our people are the one who build the country".*

Another respondent added:

> *"We need people to work with Sheikh Mohammed's vision to achieve our UAE vision 2021. So without people, without building people, we cannot achieve and I believe that current leader or future leader we should focus more about how to build human resource capabilities more that how to get recourses and machinery and technology".*

According to Mumford et al. (2007), there are two important reasons for focusing on leadership skills that any leaders should have. First, in order to have better leaders, there should be a focus on leadership skill requirements because leadership skills represent abilities that can be developed. Second, by focusing on leadership skills, the focus is shifted from the person holding the job (i.e. the leader) to the job itself. Therefore, instead of attempting to recognize the characteristics of leaders, the focus is directly on the leader's job, and the required skills (Mumford et al., 2007).

Hunt and Baruch (2003:730) recommend that studies from corporate strategy, personality theory, social psychology and organisational behaviour advise a list of skills that are effective for leaders. The proposed skills that are important for leaders to be successful are communication, interpersonal-leadership, and motivation skills. The present study asked the respondents about the most important leadership skills for leaders and responses included communication, customer service, empowerment, decision-making, problem solving, self-confidence, positive energy, critical and strategic thinking, and creativity. The following section discusses each of the leadership skills that emerged during the interview:

Communication

Effective communication permits leaders to build a trusting, supportive work atmosphere, inspire employees, and determines the engagement of employees (Hackman & Johnson, 1991; Rousseau & Tijoriwala, 1999; Denning, 2005). The majority of the respondents emphasized

communications skills, and noted it as one of the most important skills that any leader should have. Effective leadership depends on effective communication (Holt, 2011). According to one of the respondents:

> *"A leader should be able to communicate with his/her subordinates and be able to influence them, in order to achieve the organisation's goals"*.

This support Dreistadt (2008) who claims that communication skills are very important and should developed to fill any gaps between the leaders and followers. In addition, Dreistadt argues that it is not enough for a leader to have experience and knowledge. They need to develop communication skills to be able to communicate information to other parties.
Other respondents said:

> *"It's very important to fulfil the vision of the government of Dubai and with strong team building with* interpersonal *skill, communication skills"*
> *"Leaders should be very close to his staff and subordinates. He should communicate with his staff as long as with his peers others leaders in his department"*

> *"Leadership needs more communication"*

These findings give support to Hogan's (1994) argument that managers can demand others to perform their tasks because of their position of power, but these managers are not necessarily leaders. True leadership occurs when others willingly accept, for a period of time, the aims of the leader as their own. Therefore, leadership is concerned with developing consistent and goal-oriented teams (Hogan 1994). Moreover, Holt (2011) argues that a leader who is able to listen, and communicate is more likely to accomplish long-term success. It is crucial for all leaders to have effective communication skills, and they should be obvious in every leadership development program.

Strategic and critical thinking

Two of ten respondents mentioned about another important skill that a leader should have; critical and strategic thinking. One of the respondents said:

> *"A leader should be strategic person as a leader not just think of today. I should have a long term and short term and medium term strategic plans for my departments ".*

What is interesting is that this respondent is at the CEO level with work experience of more than 35 years. The respondent is at the strategic level and so knows the importance of being strategic and of critical thinking so that is why this skill is emphasised. This also supports the study of Zaccaro (2001), where it was suggested that strategic leadership is required to direct organisational and human resources toward the organisation's strategic objectives and to confirm that functions of the organisation are aligned with the external environment (Zaccaro, 2001).

Another respondent added:

> *"A leader should be critical thinking to find solution"*

This supports Mumford's (2007) argument being strategic will allow leaders to identify relationships between opportunities and problems, and then choose proper strategies to deal with them. To affect influence in organisations, strategic and critical thinking skills require a systems perspective in understanding complexity and in dealing with ambiguity (Mahoney et al., 1965; Hooijberg et al., 1997; Zaccaro, 2001).

Decision-making and empowerment

The literature of management and leadership acknowledges the importance of empowerment and decision-making (Arnold, Arad, Rhoades & Drasgow, 2000; Pearce & Sims, 2002; Ahearne, Mathieu, & Rapp, 2005; Sims, Faraj & Yun, 2009; Lorinkova et al., 2013; Martin et al., 2013). The findings of this present study confirmed that leaders should have the skills of empowerment and decision-making. For example, one of the respondents added:

"I think a leader is a person who have the ability to take initiatives and make decisions...Also decision making, we can give them the empowerment of giving a decision and a taking the full responsibility of its results and having the positive energy to transfer all wrong decisions into right decisions to look in the bright part. I mean not to look in their mistakes or old mistakes; to look in the bright part and how to improve it"

Another respondent also stated:

"A leader should be decision maker"

Empowerment motivates leaders to break out of inactive mindsets, take risks, and be self-responsible and accountable for their outcomes (Yun, Cox & Sims, 2006). However, according to Hofstede (2009), the UAE is considered to have a high power distance compared to the UK and the USA. As a result, the employees with high power distance always agree with their supervisors about any decisions made and are hesitant to trust others. This suggests that empowerment and decision making it is not easy in the UAE culture. However, the findings indicate the importance of building empowerment and decision-making skills as many scholars (Kirkman & Rosen, 1999; Ahearne et al., 2005; Zhang & Bartol, 2010; Chen et al., 2011) confirm the benefits of empowering leaders because it will build confidence in high performance, promote participation in decision-making, and provide autonomy from bureaucratic constraints.

Positive energy

Energy can be defined as a type of positive affective arousal, which people can experience as emotion to specific events (Quinn & Dutton 2005). According to Schippers and Hogenes (2011), energetic employees are imperative for the success of organisations. Employees with high levels of energy in organisations are usually more creative and productive, and they have a positive impact on others (Ash, 1913; Cross et al., 2003; Cross & Parker, 2004).

The majority of the respondents also mentioned the importance of having a high level of positive energy. For example, one respondent stated:

"A leader has always a positive energy"

Another respondent added:

"We have to talk about the positive energy now Sheikh Mohammed bin Rashid is a leader of positive energy. Positive energy now is one of the major things in leadership program".

According to His Highness Sheikh Mohammed bin Rashid Al Maktoum, Vice-President and Prime Minister of the UAE and Ruler of Dubai, applying positive energy in all aspects of life is the key to success and excellence as it inspires innovation and is a catalyst to overcome challenges and explore opportunities that develop the community. Employees with positive energy usually perform better and everything seems to happen more easily (Schippers & Hogenes, 2011). Most Dubai government organisations are considering the inclusion of positive energy skills in all LDPs.

Creativity

Creativity is one of the most important topics in the business world (Jaussi & Dionne, 2003). Increasingly, creativity has become valued across a range of tasks, industries and occupations (Mumford, 2002). Precisely, creative work can occur when the tasks involve complexity and ill-defined problems, and useful solutions are required (Mumford & Gustafson, 1988; Besemer & O'Quin, 1999; Ford, 2000) As a result, the implementation of ideas may call for creativity for initial idea generation (Mumford, 2002). Indeed, for the participants in this present study creativity is considered one of the most important skills for an effective leader. As explained with one of the respondents:

"We have to change your people mind and now the world is changing fast so we have to be creative. We need people who are creative people who really want to develop their countries"

Other respondents said:

"A leader is a daily creative person and if a leader is not creative, it is a failure"

"A leader is a daily creative person "

Previous scholars have suggested that some level of creativity is essential in almost any job (Shalley, Gilson, & Blum, 2000; Unsworth, 2001), and particularly in those who are in a position to lead. The Dubai Plan 2021, which has been launched by the UAE Vice President and Prime Minister and Dubai Ruler Sheikh Mohammed bin Rashid Al Maktoum, outlines the emirate's development framework over the next three years. One of the included themes is about creative and empowered people and creativity is considered as one of the most crucial skill for effective leaders.

Leadership skills are very important and the findings show the importance of having leadership skills such as communication, customer service, positive energy, decision making, empowerment, creativity, and strategic and critical thinking.

Theme 4: Contextual consideration in LDPs

When asked about contextual considerations that might have an impact on leadership effectiveness within Dubai government organisations, respondents gave the highest rating to cultural understanding. This was followed by organisational contextual factors, most notably, opportunities for exercising leadership.

Cultural understanding in LDPs

The results show the importance of cultural considerations in LDPs. Respondents agreed that organisations should have special courses to facilitate cross-cultural understanding. Little consideration has been given to integrating cultural issues into leadership development programs in general, and even less within the UAE (Mameli, 2013; Marmenout & Lirio, 2014). Several studies (e.g. Aram & Piriano, 1978; Mameli, 2013; Wright, 1981) have identified that leadership style is culturally determined and differs from culture to culture.

House et al. (1999), argues that it is becoming increasingly obvious that leadership development programs (LDPs) should be modified to recognize the cultural variety embedded in the international context and different national cultures. Most respondents agreed that LDPs used in the UAE must consider using examples from the UAE culture and religion. For example, some respondents said:

> *"Why do we have to learn from them because to be honest with you, leadership starts from here from our culture from our religion".*

> *"Why do we have to take all examples from Western countries as we have a lot of great examples from our own culture and religion which can be used in LDPs".*

> *"Any LDP should be customized as per our local needs and as per our globalization needs".*

According to ElKaleh and Samier (2013), LDPs makes more sense if they are linked and supported by the values and cultures of Arab countries because it would allow the participants of LDPs to better understand the applications of theories to their own context. Javidan and House (2001) argue that managers need to be aware of the cultural similarities and differences between countries and to act efficiently in a culturally sensitive way. The literature highlights a few training and development-related studies for the Middle East region, which is about the influence of Arab culture on management practices (e.g. Al-Faleh, 1987; Bakhtari, 1995; Ali, 1996; Analoui & Hosseini, 2001; Al-Rasheed & Al-Qwasmeh, 2003; Mellahi, 2003). Some studies have observed concerns related to the transfer of management practices from the West and East to the region (e.g. Hill et al., 1998; Yavas, 1998; Anwar, 2003; Saleh and Kleiner, 2005).

One of the respondents from a health and hospitals background shared their experience when sent to the UK to attend LDPs. The program included some participants from the Middle East. Once they attended the program, the trainer asked all the participants to take a duster and clean the room. The participants from the Middle East were shocked by this request because they had come to the UK to develop their leadership skills and not to learn about cleaning. Most of the

participants from the Middle East left the classroom as they felt humiliated and angry. However, this participant stayed and cleaned the room with the rest of the class who were from western countries. The idea of the cleaning experience was part of the LDP but since some participants were from Middle East, which is considered a high power distance area, could not accept this type of exercise. That is why the participants in this study were mentioning the importance of choosing the right examples for use in LDPs. This example supports the study of Pasa (2000) who asserts that managerial attitudes, behaviours, values, and efficiency vary across national cultures. Accordingly, influences on the effectiveness of LDPs, and enactment of leadership, might differ because of the cultural context in which the leader functions.

The importance of incorporating considerations of culture into LDPs was also introduced in the work of House and his colleagues in the GLOBE study but it is still widely acknowledged that cross-cultural influences on leadership development requires further research (AlMazrouei & Zacca, 2015; Avolio et al., 2009). Consequently, in order for top leaders to lead their organisations in the 21st century, they have to be aware of the national (or regional) and ethnic cultural diversity of their staff and their working environments.

Organisational contextual factors of LDPs

In terms of the organisational context, Leskiw and Singh (2007) argue that there are some specific factors that influence the effectiveness of LPDs. These factors include needs assessment, audience selection, organisational infrastructure, and learning system.

Audience selection

The findings show that some of the participant organisations follow two types of audience selection: merit based and random selection.

Previous research shows that organisations spend relatively little time on leadership development and, even though a company may select individuals as potential leaders, evidence suggests that few of them are ready to be successful leaders (Sogunro, 1997).

"We need to invest in our youth to choose the best among them where we believe that they are the most suitable people from Dubai to be leaders in the future".

Organisations are spending large sums of money on LDPs annually (Gibler, Carter & Goldsmith, 2000) but, unfortunately, many organisations are failing to gain maximum advantage from such leadership development programs (Hernez-Broome & Hughes, 2004). Some organisations are not selecting the right candidates for leadership development programs, which impacts on the effectiveness of the LDP. Fifty per cent of participants mentioned the problems organisations are facing in selecting the right candidates and how they need to focus on the criteria and assessment to ensure the success of the program. They suggest that there should be an assessment before selecting the participant to ensure the right candidates are selected.
One respondent added:

"Some organisations give chance to employees who have not attended any training course to join LDPs".

The findings show that the selection of participants is not based on assessment and the wrong candidates are selected to attend LDPs. According to Leskiw & Singh (2007), selection processes should not only include a nomination from managers they must be directed by clear and objective criteria.

It was noted by one of the respondents that:

"The selection of people is the most successful factor for any program, especially for LDP; you are here to get information about how to be efficient leadership so when you select the right people of course it will improve the success outcomes of such programs".

According to Wilson and Corrall (2008), one of the factors that affect any training program is the selection processes and the suitability of the participant nomination.

Theme 5: Leadership challenges

In the last two decades, there has been substantial investment in the research of leadership and in parallel with organisations' extensive creation of training programs (Fulmer & Vicere, 1996; Dolezalek, 2004; O'Leonard, 2010). In addition, many investments in leadership development are being made by most governmental organisations within the UAE (Abbas & Yaqoob, 2009). However, many challenges impact on the effectiveness of LDPs and they should be considered to enable achievement of the desired outcomes. Investments in training programs can only be considered effective if the knowledge and skills learned can be transferred successfully to the workplace (Tonhauser & Buker, 2016).

Factors that impact on learning transfer

Currently, most organisations attempt to capitalize on the initiatives of training in order to move their strategic agendas forward (Srimannarayana, 2016). According to Hatala and Fleming (2007), these initiatives require the participants in training to take the skills learned back to the workplace and to apply what they have learned to the job. However, the results of this study reveal a number of different factors that impact on learning transfer: work environment, supervisory support, lack of opportunity to exercise leadership, metacognition skills, access to financial resources, adapting to smart government, and the building and retention of effective leaders.

Work environment

Much of the literature (Ford & Quinones, 1992; Quinones & Ford, 1995; Bates & Khasawneh, 2005; Hawley & Barnard, 2005; Burke & Hutchins, 2007) shows that the work environment is one of the most important factors that influence the process of learning transfer. Most of the participants agreed that the work environment has a major impact on learning transfer. For example, one of the participants said:

> *"Employees should practise the leadership skills in their organisations but if the work environment is not supportive, employees will not be able to practise the skills learned."*

Another respondent added:

"Work environment impact on the success of leadership development programs".

According to (Baldwin & Ford, 1988), the work environment is one of the major factors that affect application of learning at the workplace.

Supervisory support

Supervisory support has been identified as an essential work environment variable that impacts on the process of learning transfer (Quinones, Ford, Sego, & Smith, 1995; Salas & Cannon-Bowers, 2001; Nijman et al., 2006). To implement LDPs effectively, it is essential to have ongoing support and participation from senior management (Leskiw & Singh, 2007). Most of the respondents commented on the lack of supervisory support to allow them to practise the skills learned. For instance, one of the participants said:

"Employees are not encouraged enough from their managers to practise whatever learned in LDPs".

Another participant stated:

"Supporting the employees is the most effective way to implement the skills and knowledge learned ".

Supervisors can be either supportive or non-supportive of new skills learned (Srimannarayana, 2016). In addition, Campbell and Cheek (1989) argue that without the support of supervisors, the transfer of newly learned skills to the workplace is difficult.

Lack of opportunity to exercise leadership

Lack of opportunity to exercise leadership is considered to be one the barriers to leadership development (Morrison, 1992). Besides, in a study conducted in Scotland in 2007 (Tourish, Pinnington & Braithwaite-Anderson) survey participants had to rate about seven common

barriers to implementing LDPs. The results showed a significant 68% rated lack of support or commitment from senior managers.

The findings in the present study supports Tourish et al. (2007) when the respondents mentioned that, even when employees are supported through an LDP, lack of opportunity to exercise leadership is a problem and a challenge. They argued that managers do not always support their subordinates who complete LDPs, and these employees do not, therefore, have the chance to exercise their leadership skills or to apply what they have learned from the programs at their workplace.

For example, it was stated by one of the respondents that:

> *"…They (participants) do not get the chance to exercise their leadership skills and to practise what they have learned from LDPs".*

According to Khasawneh (2004), supervisors play an important role in maintaining learning on the job through proper rewards and prompt feedback. An employee can have the opportunity to exercise leadership skills at the workplace if there is support from supervisors (Colquitt, et al., 2000; Wang & Wentling, 2001).

One of the respondents suggested conducting special LDPs *"first for the top management"* in order to avoid any future problems with participants who have completed an LDP and have the willingness to exercise their leadership skills. According to Leskiw and Singh (2007), to implement LDPs effectively, it is important to have ongoing support and participation from senior management.

Metacognition skills

As discussed in the literature review chapter, metacognition is an important concept in cognitive theory and is defined as learners' awareness of their own process of learning. Learners who have self-awareness of their own learning process are able to monitor and evaluate their learning progress (Winn & Snyder, 1996). The findings support the idea of metacognition. When the

researcher asked the participants about leadership challenges and how can they practise their leadership skills in an unsupportive work environment, the answer by one of the participants was:

> *"Participants learn different leadership skills in LDPs and they have to think and use these skills and practise it in at work".*

> *"Participants should have the initiatives to apply the skills learned at workplace and convince their managers about the impact of implementing it in organisation".*

Participants who completed LDPs have already developed leadership skills that supposed to be practised at the workplace. Learners who have the ability to control their learning process are more likely to be effective with their leaning experiences (Flavell, 1979; Kuhn & Dean, 2004; Hanna, 2007). These findings can point to the way leadership styles that can promote the metacognition skills. For example, it can be observed from the descriptions that are given about the metacognition skills that it is similar to what is described as the transformational leadership style. According to Ruggieri et al. (2013), the transformational leadership style is expected to be effective in enhancing metacognitive skills.

Access to financial resources

Organisations in the USA spend significant amounts of money on training as it is considered as "big business in all developed countries (Steensma & Groeneveld, 2010). In 2015, according to the Association for Talent Development Training Industry Report (ATD, 2015), spending on corporate training was more than $70 billion in the US and more than $130 billion worldwide.

The development of leaders is an expressed goal of most organisations, and leadership development plays an important role in the success of organisations (Avolio & Hannah, 2009). According to Dirani (2017), organisations require their employees to participant in training to improve their skills, knowledge and abilities. Such organisations value the importance of training future leaders and they understand the value of continuous LDPs (Thach & Heinselman, 2000; Day, 2000; Day et al., 2014). For example, one of the respondents said:

"If there are good financial resources, enough resources you can invest more in leadership but if your organisation doesn't have resources, it is difficult for them to build and teach leadership".

Adapting to smart government

According to Eom, Choi, and Sung (2016), smartness has been emerging worldwide as a keyword of government transformation strategies. Although there are many different ideas about smart government, it can be defined generally as "a deployment of the creative mix of emerging technologies and innovation in the public sector" (Gil-Garcia, Helbig, & Oko, 2014, p. 12) that solves complex and dilemmatic problems. Smart work refers to a different means of organizing work using computer-based technologies, mobile devices, and telecommunications that permit employees to start their activities at any place and at any time (Neirotti et al., 2013; Bailey & Kurland, 2002; Ferreira, 2011).

For example, one of the respondents added:

"Currently there are a lot of challenges in Dubai government organisations as they want to do something new which belongs to technology such as smart applications".

Another respondent added:

"Sheikh Mohammed took the initiative of smart government. I think the old style is gone, we are not waiting for people who don't want to develop. Every day there is a new idea and you can see most of government department they are competing with each other to be part of the initiative and to make all people living in Dubai their life is easier".

Since the start of the smart Government initiative in the UAE by Vice-President, Prime Minister and Ruler of Dubai, Sheikh Mohammed bin Rashid Al Maktoum, most Dubai government organisations are considering how to cope with the new technologies and how to support the initiative, which includes a special award at the end of the year. The researcher observed from the findings that there is much competition between organisations to change the style of instruction in LDPs', for example, from the classroom to 'smart' methods such as e-learning. According to

Eom et al. (2016), there are potential benefits from applying the smart government concept. For example, it will reduce commuting time, enhance the quality of an individual's work life, provide environmentally friendly data and communication technology, enhance the productivity of work, and help accomplish a balance between life and work (Noonan & Glass, 2012).

Several scholars (Brungardt, 1996; Hernez-Broome & Hughes, 2004; Lynham, 2000; Pernick, 2001) who argue that LDPs should not be classroom experience, rather, they should be a collection of practices and knowledge gained over time. As suggested by the participants E-learning could be one of the new methods used for LDPs.

Building and retention of effective leaders

Organisations in the USA invest significantly in training and often spend between 2 per cent and 2.5 per cent of their payroll on training (ASTD, 2005). According to Abbas and Yaqoob (2009), most governmental organisations in the UAE also spend significant amounts of money in leadership development programs. However, organisations are facing challenges in the development of effective LDPs that prepare future leaders for the demands of tomorrow while succeeding in today's complex and competitive marketplace (Abbas & Yaqoob, 2009).

The results of the current study point to the importance of focusing on building and retention of effective leaders who will contribute to achieve the goals of the organisation. For example, one of the respondents said:

> *"Having effective leaders is not enough but we should focus on retaining them as it's a high cost investment"*

Moreover, other respondents highlighted the importance of having effective leaders where they will have a major role in accomplishing the strategic plan of 2021. For example, one of the participants said:

> *"We have a very clear vision from Sheikh Mohammed to make Dubai the happiest city, to make Dubai one of the, let's say, the best city in the world and centre of trade and*

business among the world. To achieve this vision you should have soldiers who will teach them how to become leaders in the future. In this area we need to invest in our youth to choose the best among them where we believe that they are the most suitable people from Dubai to be leaders in the future."

Another respondent added:

"First of all, long term vision coping with the vision and goals of the government of Dubai and looking for opportunities and utilizing the opportunities to make benefit for Dubai and, of course, building people".

The Dubai Plan 2021 has been launched by the UAE Vice-President and Prime Minister and Dubai Ruler Sheikh Mohammed bin Rashid Al Maktoum, and outline the emirate's development framework over the next three years. The framework of the plan consists of six themes that aim to describe Dubai in the year 2021: a city of happy, creative and empowered people; an inclusive and cohesive society; the preferred place to live, work and visit; a smart and sustainable city; a pivotal hub in the global economy; and a pioneering and excellent government.

The first theme focuses on the people who will have a great contribution to make in achieving the vision and mission of Dubai Plan 2021. The main purpose of the theme is to reinforce the responsibility individuals feel towards themselves, their families and society; responsibilities to pursue and encourage education and personal development, to preserve a healthy lifestyle, and to play an active and productive role in all aspects of the economy and society. The framework of the strategic plan 2021, particularly the themes of a city of happy, creative and empowered people, suggests that people are the focus of Dubai Plan 2021. One of the aims of this theme is to promote education and personal development to enable people to plan an active and productive role in all aspects of the economy and society.

One of the respondents mentioned the challenge of retaining leaders when it was said:

"The second challenge is about retaining your leaders in your organisation. I know the market is open, everybody is looking for good people, but from my point of view we should make sure that we have all the systems, policies, criteria, reward system that we can retain our leaders because building leaders and building people is really a cost and high cost investment we should get return of investment from this program"

Gilley et al. (2008) confirm that effective leaders have the ability to attract and retain employees who are passionate about work.

Theme 6: Effective mechanisms used in LDPs

The most popular mechanisms used in LDPs, as identified by Day (2001) are 360-degree feedback, executive coaching, mentoring and networking, job assignments and action learning. According to Day (2000: p. 582), "a leadership development approach is oriented toward building capacity in anticipation of unforeseen challenges (i.e. development)". However, a more focused analysis of the Day's findings indicates important conclusions about the most effective mechanism of LDPs in Dubai public organisations. This section highlight the essential tools recommended for effective LDPs.

Coaching and mentoring

Coaching is an ongoing process used to improve a career and to develop leaders (Day, 2000). Many scholars (Day, 2000; Paige, 2002; Ely et al., 2010; Pinnington, 2011) identify coaching and mentoring as one of the most popular practices to develop leaders. The majority of the participants argued that coaching and mentoring are the best mechanisms for effective LDPs. One of the participants believes that:

"Coaching and mentoring are more practical than going to attend training seminars because coaching and mentoring will be under supervision of some good leaders in the organisation".

The respondent believes that coaching and mentoring are more effective than attending a training course. This was also mentioned in the study by Mathafena (2007) who argues that employees attend training courses on leadership as part of mandatory or annual training, who then return to work but never have the chance to implement the newly learned knowledge. This shows the importance of looking at the best leadership development practices that should be used in the context of the UAE. Al Naqbi (2010) declared that organisations in the UAE should look at the different international LDPs and make sure the right leadership development practices are used so that they are more effective within the context of the UAE.

Leadership coaching has been presented as a promising leadership development practice (Day, 2000; Ely et al., 2010). Leadership coaching is different from traditional leadership development because leadership coaching focuses on the individual client needs as well as the client's organisation and the unique characteristics each brings. Leadership coaching requires coaches to have special skill sets and demands process flexibility to achieve desired outcomes (Ely et al., 2010). One respondent believed that coaching and mentoring are among the best tools used in LDPs because, usually, one to one interaction is more effective.

Many scholars (Day, 2001; Gilley et al., 2008; Pinnington, 2011) argue the benefits of using coaching and mentoring in LDPs. For example, Gilley et al. (2008), believes coaching inspires other people to be their best, empowers individuals to think outside the box, allows people to think ahead, and encourages networking.

One of the respondents mentioned a different idea about having an effective coach when he said:

> *"We can say mentoring is one of the best mechanism but mentoring with good mentors, especially from private sector, for example CEO of general electric's CEO of Emirates airline because they have big challenges with different business situation. They will help in sharing practices and information with different* organisation *locally and internationally is one of the most efficient ways of building leaders in this part of the world".*

Another respondent supported the same idea of having a mentor from international companies:

"Yes, a mentor could be a local one or could be an international one"

From the above responses, it can be seen that coaching and mentoring are considered one of the most popular mechanisms recommended to be used in LDPs. However, some respondents suggested different ideas for using coaching or mentoring, such as dealing with international coaches or mentors. The participants were looking for someone from private sectors, such as the CEO of General Electric's or the CEO of Emirates airline because of the challenges that they are facing in their organisations. The perception of the respondents is that they can learn a lot from international coaches. Ely et al. (2010), mention that leadership coaches require a vast and adaptive set of skills to effectively meet the diverse and dynamic needs of individuals and their organisations. This supports the idea of the participant who suggested having coaches from international organisations to meet the diverse needs of individuals and their organisations.

Implementation of LDPs

Day (2000) emphasizes that classroom programs suffer from transfer challenges and high start-up costs and, consequently, there is a movement towards practising leadership development in the work setting. In this present study, the results also show that respondents suggested different ways to implement LDPs in Dubai government organisations. For example, one of the respondents added a very interesting point:

"LDPs should not be implemented just for a set period of time, but should be a continuous learning process"

This statement is in line with the thinking of Thach and Heinselman (2000) who claim that organisations that utilize ongoing and continuous leadership development methods value the importance of training future leaders, which they consider crucial for success. Many scholars (Brungardt, 1996; Hernez-Broome & Hughes, 2004; Lynham, 2000; Pernick, 2001) agree that LDPs should not be an experience of a week in a classroom but should be a collection of practices and knowledge gained over time.

Work experience

One of the respondents believed that work experience is the best approach used for developing leaders as noted:

"Work experience is the best mechanism used in LDP".

Leaders usually spend considerable time at work and interact with employees who often seek assistance for work and personal issues (Burke, Weir, & Duncan, 1976). These interactions provide leaders with opportunities to engage and learn new skills (Johnson et al., 2012).

In summary, the results of the study in phase (1) point to the importance of LDPs, and how they can help organisations build effective leaders. Then, the study demonstrated the conceptualisations of leadership and show that leadership is conceptualised differently across cultures. The respondents' responses show the most common leadership styles among leaders are transformational and transactional leadership. The respondents argued that different leadership skills are built while attending LDPs: communication, customer service, creativity and decision-making. The results also identify different leadership challenges and factors that impact on learning transfer. The findings illustrate that the work environment, which includes supervisory support and lack of opportunity for exercising leadership, are the main factors that affect learning transfer.

Chapter 5: DATA ANALYSIS (PART2)

5.1.2 Part two: Phase (2)

The second phase identifies the expected outcomes from LDPs and the contents and conceptualisation of LDPs as implemented in Dubai government organisations. The second phase of the research involved ten respondents (3 female, 7 male) who were key decision makers and training designers from Dubai government organisations over three months (August 2015 to October 2015). The respondents were highly educated; six out of ten participants had earned postgraduate degree while four out of ten participants had earned undergraduate degree. In terms of nationality, eight out of ten participants were UAE national while two out of ten participants were expatriates. For the purpose of analysing the findings of this study, the respondents were categorized according to codes. The results were collected through interviews were grouped into the following six major themes to demonstrate the insights of the different interviewees.

Theme 1: LDP types
Theme 2: Expected outcomes of LDPs
Theme 3: Factors influencing LDPs effectiveness
Theme 4: Evaluation of LDPs effectiveness
Theme 5: Suggestions for improving the effectiveness of LDP

The important themes that emerged from the interviews are explored in detail in the following section.

Theme 1: LDPs types

In this study, three types of LDPs were examined: Mohammed Bin Rashid Centre for Leadership Development (MBRCLD), Mohammed bin Rashid School of Government (MBRSG), Customized LDP. The main purpose for examining different types of LDPs is to identify the expected outcomes from LDPs and to identify the contents and conceptualisation of LDPs as implemented in Dubai government organisations. The following table (5.2) is a summary of the three types of LDPs:

Table 5.2: Summary of the three types of LDPs

LDPs	MBRSG	MBRCLD	Customized LDP (C)
Date of establishment	2005	2003	2013
Number of graduates	More than 2000 graduates	More than 500 graduates	48 graduates
Language	Arabic & English	English	Arabic
Implementation of LDP	External provider + in house	External provider	External provider
Duration	12-18 months	12-18 months	Four months
Trainers	Bilingual	English	Bilingual
Types of programs	Customized programs Open enrolment program	Executive leaders Government leaders Young leaders Promising leaders	LDP translated into Arabic with little customization

The Mohammed Bin Rashid School of Government (MBRSG)

The Mohammed bin Rashid School of Government **(**MBRSG) was launched in 2005 under the patronage of His Highness Sheikh Mohammed Bin Rashid Al Maktoum, Vice-President and Prime Minister of the UAE and Ruler of Dubai. It is the first research and teaching institution to concentrate on governance and public policy in the Arab world. The main purpose of the LDPs provided by the MBRSG is to support the continuing efforts for governmental excellence in the UAE and the Arab world, and to empower leaders to build the future through an integrated system offering education and training programs, as well as research and studies.

The MBRSG has collaborates with several private institutions and governments, both internationally and regionally. The overall training programs are designed and implemented based on scientific thought, and inspired by the reality of Arab public administration. The training is with a view to improving the performance of individuals, and to help future leaders in different parts of the Arab world meet the challenges that face public administration. In addition, the MBRSG is charged with organizing regional and international conferences and specialized workshops. It holds forums to enable the fruitful exchange of ideas and knowledge within the Arab region and the world.

Types of programs at the MBRSG

1. **Customized programs**

The MBRSG offers customized executive education programs, which are designed to help institutions recognize their full potential by presenting joined, customized, capacity-building solutions. The MBRSG has their own in-house faculty for their customized programs with representatives from client institutions. Advanced assessment techniques are utilized in their program to help measure organisational strengths and needs, which enable them to tailor the right program design. The program can be delivered in Arabic and English and trainers used for their customized programs are bilingual. The duration of the program is between 12 and 18 months. Currently more than 2000 graduates are from this program.

2. **Open enrolment programs**

The MBRSG also offers open enrolment programs, which are short, certificate-based programs. The focus of these programs is on management, leadership, negotiation and governance. The open enrolment programs are designed to train executives with the knowledge and skills essential to achieve both individual and institutional excellence. The open enrolment programs are usually last between 3 and 4 days.

The Mohammed Bin Rashid Centre for Leadership Development (MBRCLD)

The Mohammed Bin Rashid Centre for Leadership Development (MBRCLD) offers leadership programs that have been established in line with the vision and directions of His.Highness Sheikh Mohammed Bin Rashid Al Maktoum, UAE Vice President and Prime Minister and Ruler of Dubai, who has emphasized the critical importance of a highly competent national professional workforce to ensure the country's global sustainability. The MBRCLD offers four types of leadership development programs with different categories: executive leaders, government leaders, young leaders and promising leaders. The candidates applying for leadership programs must meet the following eligibility criteria: be a UAE national, be a graduate from a recognized university, be within an age range that is different for each category, be known for their competence and effective achievement, be proficient in English and Arabic languages, and be

familiar with computer applications. The duration of the program is between 12 and 18 months. Currently more than 500 graduates are from this program. Training designer (B) relies on external providers to deliver the program. They approach well-known and globally recognized universities to deliver the leadership development program. The only language used in delivering the program is English, as they cannot deliver it in Arabic.

Customized leadership development programs (C)

Since 2013, one of the Dubai government organisations has used a customized LDP. The LDP is in collaboration with an external provider. The target audience of the program is heads of sections and they have had 48 graduates. The main purpose of the program is to develop leadership skills to help candidates be successful leaders. The duration of the program is four months and it is delivered in Arabic.

Theme 2: Expected outcomes of LDPs

Leadership development programs aim to develop leaders so they can transfer organisational culture and values ultimately resulting in collective sharing with all organisation members to achieve the objectives of the organisation (Hamilton & Cynthia, 2005). Thus, creating leadership development programs that prepare leaders to successfully meet the expectations and objectives of an ever-changing, demanding market is critical for organisations facing a lack of effective leaders (Holt, 2011). Leadership development within organisations can have a major influence on an organisation's culture, growth, production, market share and profit (Hurt & Homan, 2005; Mathafena, 2007; Holt, 2011). Leadership development can be at the individual, group and organisational levels (Mathafena, 2007). Leadership development programs are one of many essential areas in which organisations must strategically invest in their employees. The results showed the expected outcomes of LDPs were divided into two levels: the individual level and the organisational level. The following section will discuss the levels in detail:

Individual level outcomes:

- **Leadership skills**

When the researcher asked the training providers about the expected outcomes of LDPs, most agreed that the main expected outcome of LDPs is to build leadership skills crucial for a successful organisation. The skills are communication, creativity and innovation, customer service, problem solving, decision-making, empowerment, project management, technical skills, team building and strategic planning. The findings support the study of Jones, Simonetti and Vielhaber-Hermon (2000), who revealed in their study that well-developed leadership skills are crucial to build a successful organisation. They further argue that leadership creates relationships and a working environment that engages colleagues to work on new ideas, initiatives, and to add value for the organisation. According to Abbas and Yaqoob (2009), leadership development programs intend to develop managers' skills at all levels, whether operational, tactical, strategic or personal.

One of the respondents said:

> *"In Dubai government organisations, LDPs are designed to enrich people with leadership skills."*

Another added:

> *"LDPs will help in developing leadership skills and competencies."*

In addition, a leadership development program (LDP) is a process to develop the skills of leaders in order to achieve the organisation's objectives (Hamilton & Cynthia, 2005). Leaders initially enter organisations as novices, no matter how gifted they are. Hence, they lack basic concepts that provide them with an understanding of work, leadership roles and organisational contexts (Mumford et al., 2000). As a result, building leadership skills are highly important for those potential leaders.

- **Skills enhancement and self-development**

According to Riggio (2008), most employees are interested in how they can develop themselves to become better leaders. Organisations in all sectors (public, private, non-profit) spend billions

of dollars worldwide to train and develop employees and a large share of training resources is dedicated to leadership development programs. The majority of the respondents said that LDPs helps in enhancing the skills of leaders so that they are able to handle new projects and initiatives. For example, one of the respondents said that:

> *"The main objective of this program is to have our existing leaders reach to optimal level of competences ".*

Another respondent said that:

> *"All leadership development programs are designed to enhance leader's capability".*

Another respondent added:

> *"This program will help to develop themselves and also to develop their skills".*

One respondent talked about some leaders who still need to attend an LDP in order to enhance their skills at work. Other respondents argued that organisations should know the ultimate goal of LDPs. Attendance at a LDP should have a clear objective, and the necessary areas of improvement should be identified and focused on so that the right LDPs is used. According to (Day et al., 2014), the ultimate goal of most LDPs is to improve the effectiveness of leaders. One of the respondents mentioned that LDPs are designed to enrich people with leadership skills and competencies. The same respondent added that LDPs help in developing a variety of leadership skills and abilities, for example effectively dealing with change and motivating teams.

- **Chances for promotions**

One of the expected outcomes of LDPs is that the participant has an improved chance of promotion. Four respondents out of ten declared that LDPs will help the leaders' chances of promotions For example some participants said:

"People who enter into the program they are trained and developed so usually what happens they are the one who get the promotion".

"And there's another one which is the young leaders who have some kind of potential and you need to enhance the skills of capabilities that they are having in order to prepare them for leading positions in the future".

According to Cacioppe (1998), human resource systems that are operating with an organisation like selection, rewards and performance management should be aligned with the strategic directions and leadership skills that are covered in LDPs. For example, the required leadership skills can be added to promotion criteria and performance appraisal. As a result, this will encourage the participants of the program to apply the skills learned to their workplace, which will lead to increasing the chances for promotions. It can be deduced that the Dubai Government's efforts to align LDP participation with promotion is intended to increase the motivation of the participant to engage with the LDPs more meaningfully, and in ways that benefit their future career growth.

- **Connections and networks**

One of the important outcomes of LDPs is the relationships that are developed among the participants of the programs and with the experts in the field (Jones, 2015). In addition, the networks that are developed open doors for emerging leaders. This supports what one of the respondents said:

"To facilitate a stronger network, between government departments, between different functions and sectors."

"Because we know that their leaders, most of them, are leaders in their entities but we want to establish a group of network between them so that they know each other better".

This supports the study of Cacioppe (1998) that mentions that attending LDPs provides a good opportunity to link up with other leaders relevant to your work and to build a relationship with

other participants. Cacioppe adds that the time spent with other participants arguing similar issues, problems and concerns builds a great network. As well, participants will have the opportunity to know other members from different organisations and to share experience.

Organisational level outcomes:

- **Enhancement of organisational process**

  Three of ten respondents mentioned that the new leadership skills gained by participants would enhance many processes in the organisation. According to Collins and Holton (2004), the senior executives of many organisations believe that improving the skills and knowledge of individual employees will automatically enhance the effectiveness of the organisation.

- **Organisational strategy development**

  Four respondents of ten declared that futures leaders would help in implementing all the projects and strategic plans and in achieving the vision of the organisation. According to Katz and Kahn (1978), leadership is vital for a variety of reasons. On a managerial level, leadership is required to complement the systems of the organisation and to improve subordinate motivation, satisfaction and effectiveness (Bass, 1990). At the strategic level, leadership is important to guarantee the coordinated functioning of the organisation as it interacts with a dynamic external environment (Katz & Kahn, 1978). Hence, leadership is required to direct organisational and human resources toward the organisation's strategic objectives and to confirm that functions of the organisation are aligned with the external environment (Zaccaro, 2001).

- **Preparing future leaders for new initiatives**

  Six respondents talked about the new initiatives, such as Expo 2020, which requires preparation of futures leaders. Organisations are investing considerable resources in developing and delivering LDPs and scholars believe this investment will increase in coming decades (Collins, 2001).

As noted, leadership development programs can have a significant impact at both the individual level and the organisational level. This is in agreement with findings from similar studies (Judge et al., 2004; Mumford et al., 2007; Dierdorff et al., 2009; Morgeson et al., 2010) that focused on the expected outcomes of LDPs and the skills needed for a successful organisation.

Theme 3: Factors influencing LDPs effectiveness

Practitioners and training designers have always sought to develop methods to improve the effectiveness of training programs (Çifci, 2014). Therefore, the effectiveness of a training program is measured by the trainee's motivation and ability to transfer learning to the workplace (Holton, 2000). Investments in training measures can only be considered effective if the newly learned skills can be transferred successfully to the workplace (Tonhauser & Buker, 2016). Since, this present study considers learning transfer as one of the outcomes of attending LDPs, the training designers were asked about factors that should be considered in LDPs: The following emerged:

Contextual consideration

Cultural understanding in LDPs

Leadership is conceptualised differently across cultures and it is difficult to describe leadership within a single cultural context. Examining the differences across cultural boundaries presents several additional challenges (Dickson et al., 2012). As discussed in phase (1), where the researcher asked the respondents about the contextual consideration in LDPs, the results showed that respondents gave the highest rating to cultural understanding.

In phase (2), the researcher asked the training designers to make sure that cultural understating is addressed in their LDPs.

As a mentioned in the literature review chapter, there are several limiting factors not considered in LDPs in other countries, for instance, the cultural considerations such as

Islamic values, traditions and customs that are intensely rooted in the cultural values of societies in the Middle East.

When the researcher asked the training designers about cultural understating in LDPs, the participants argued that several factors, such as religion, language of the program, political issues and nationality of the trainer, are considered while designing LDPs. For example, one of the participants from the MBRCLD mentioned that all training manuals are reviewed to make sure that the examples used in the manuals are suitable to UAE culture.

> *"When we design the program, we have to take into consideration the culture of UAE such as political issues and religion".*

> *"Because actually we have received some of the proposals, although the training program was excellent, but it touches basis on the, on some of the political issues, not in the UAE but in the region, and we had to let it down because of these considerations".*

> *"We never use a tool without doing it first of ourselves… we have our own assessors and one of them is UAE national who would be checking for example the language and if there are any cultural references that they don't find it relevant ".*

This supports the study of Ali (1995) who declared that, currently, most organisations in Arab countries develop their curricula and programs by copying Western theories and models. These theories have been developed based on research studies conducted for western countries and may not be applicable in Arab countries where Muslims get their cultural roots and practices from Islam (ElKaleh & Samier, 2013). In addition, programs make more sense if they are linked and supported by the values and culture of Arab countries because the candidates will better understand the applications of leadership theories within their own context (ElKaleh & Samier, 2013). This shows the importance

of reviewing all materials used in LDPs before conducting LDPs in Dubai government organisations.

During the interviews, the researcher discovered that the MBRCLD made sure that all materials and examples used in the program are reviewed by a UAE national. Although the MBRCLD have considered cultural understating in their program, they have not considered the language of the program as they only deliver it in the English language. When the researcher asked about the availability of delivering the program in Arabic language, they said that it is not possible for fear of losing the quality of the program.

The case is different with the MBRSG where they deliver their leadership development program in Arabic and English. When the researcher asked MBRSG if language of the program could be considered one of the key factors of LDPs effectiveness, the answer was:

> *"Yes most of our programs have demands in Arabic".*

The MBRSG mentioned as well that the participants in the program are engaged more when the language of the program is Arabic. According to Al Shamsi (2015), the cultural identity of the Gulf region is strongly represented in its religion and language. Arabic is the official language of the Gulf that offers a very strong sense of collective identity to Gulf nationals (Katzner, 1986).

When the researcher asked the training designer from the customized LDP (C) about the importance of cultural understanding in LDPs, the respondent said:

> *"You can take whatever is beneficial for you from the program and won't contradict with your cultural aspects".*

The customized LDP (C) has not considered cultural understanding in their LDPs. They only dealt with an external provider. The LDP was taken from western countries and all

materials were translated into Arabic. This supports what Ali (1995) declared in his study, that currently, most organisations in Arab countries develop their programs by copying Western theories and models. The majority of the insights and knowledge that make up the content of LDPs originated in research in the West, particularly the United States. However, organisational research needs to take into account that people come from, and live in, different cultures (Rousseau & Fried, 2001). Thus, understanding the context of a country is crucial for leadership development.

The results showed that cultural understanding is not considered in all LDPs. As stated in phase (1) where the respondents argued the importance of cultural understanding in their LDPs, a finding of phase (2) is also that some LDPs do not consider cultural understanding.

Little consideration has been given to integrating cultural understanding in leadership development programs within the UAE (Randeree & Chaudhry, 2007; Al-Khatib, 2012). The study by Al-Khatib (2012) mentions that the UAE is an Islamic country which is affected highly by the Arabic culture, traditions, principles and language that play a major role in the lifestyle of citizens (Suliman, 2006). Therefore, cultural understanding is considered one of the important factors in LDPs.

Work environment

As stated in phase (1), work environment factors are considered significant and can have an impact on the process of learning transfer (Baldwin & Ford, 1988; Rouiller & Goldstein, 1993; Cheng & Ho, 2001; Kirwan & Birchall, 2006; Blume et al., 2010; Pham et al., 2012). A poor work environment is considered to be one the barriers to leadership development program (Morrison, 1992). In a study conducted in Scotland in 2007 (Tourish, Pinnington & Braithwaite-Anderson), survey participants had to rate seven common barriers to implementing leadership development programs and the results showed as Table 5.3.

Table 5.3: Common barriers to implementing leadership development programs

Barriers	Results
Inability to prove direct impact of activities	79%
Organisational culture	74%
Lack of support/commitment from senior managers	68%
Lack of interest of those taking part	64%
Lack of financial support	62%
Not linked to Business or HR strategy	61%
Lack of knowledge, expertise and experience to deliver leadership development	60%

Source: Tourish, Pinnington and Braithwaite-Anderson (2007)

When the researcher asked the training designers about the impact of work environment factors on LDP effectiveness, one of the respondents said:

> *"I think the environment, all the things related to the work environment we have to re-look at it and re-develop it in the way that it is supporting the future leadership because they will see it from their angle..."*

In addition, there were several work environment elements that emerged during the interviews for example, supervisory support, peer support and openness to change.

Supervisory support

Holton et al. (2000) describe supervisor support as the extent to which supervisors support and reinforce the use of newly acquired skills and knowledge to the workplace. Supervisory support has been classified as an essential work-environment element that affects the process of learning transfer (Quinones, Ford, Sego, & Smith, 1995; Gregoire, Propp, & Poertner, 1998; Richman-Hirsch, 2001; Salas & Cannon-Bowers, 2001). This view is supported by phase (1) where most respondents agreed that supervisory support is one of the factors that should be considered in order to have an effective LDP.

Most of the respondents in phase (2) also agreed that the support of supervisors is very important, as they do not get the chance to apply the skills and knowledge learned to the workplace. For instance, some respondents said:

> *"I don't care what you have learned from certain training but I don't want to be implemented in my place".*

> *"In some programs we got feedback yes, the candidate is very excellent and he is a leader, but the manager he is working with, is not allowing him, or her to excel and experience all the leadership skills".*

The findings support the study of Tourish et al. (2007) where it showed 68% for lack of support/commitment from senior managers. To implement LDPs effectively, it is essential to have ongoing support and participation from senior management (Leskiw & Singh, 2007).

Peer support

Peer support is defined by Holton et al. (2000), as the extent to which peers producing reinforcement and supporting the use of learning on the job. Scholars suggest that peer support is recognized as one of the factors that facilitate learning transfer (Facteau et al., 1995; Holton et al., 1997; Kontoghiorghes, 2001; Tharenou, 2001; Holton, Chen, & Naquin, 2003). For example, Facteau et al. (1995), argue that managers who believed they had peers support were more likely to report learning transfer. One of the respondents stated that:

> *"It is important to have a good manager and colleagues in order to have the chance to apply what you have learned ".*

Openness to change

Openness to change refers to the degree to which trainees perceive their organisation, in general, and their work group in particular, to be open to new ideas and to support and

invest in change (Donovan, Hannigan, & Crowe, 2001). Respondents also argued that they face difficulties in their organisations to apply the skills learned because there is resistance to change. For example, one of the respondents said:

> *"Your leaders sometimes face problems with the elderly people who are in higher position, it is not easy to deal with them ".*

It is obvious from the interviews that the work environment is one of the factors that affect the learning transfer process (Awoniyi et al., 2002; Baldwin & Ford, 1988; Clarke, 2002; Cromwell & Kolb, 2004; Gumuseli & Ergin, 2002; Richman-Hirsch, 2001). The researcher questioned the training designers about how they can help participants of LDPs to overcome this problem. The answer was interesting as most of the participants from training designer (A) stated:

> *"During the program the participants will learn how to deal with top management".*
>
> *"You already have the right knowledge about leadership so if you go back to your work and perform well, you will find a chance".*
>
> *"If I developed my skills, I can develop other places. At the end, it depends upon the person interest".*
>
> *"True leadership is the person who can lead himself first before leading anyone else".*

The results show that the participants who completed LDPs are supposed to gain the required leadership skills during their attendance at LDPs. This will allow them to start by themselves first and to practice the skills learned at the workplace. The participant should be able to use the metacognitive skills, which are particularly essential for leaders who already have developed basic leadership skills (Lord & Hall, 2005). They have the ability to monitor and assess the effectiveness of the leadership approach that they are using. In addition, leaders will be able to amplify learning from their experiences and adopt new strategies to enhance their effectiveness. In the leadership domain, metacognition skills

may address self-awareness and monitoring ability to practice the skills learned at workplace (Day, Schleicher, Unckless, & Hiller, 2002; Mumford et al., 2000).

Process of designing LDPs

In order to have successful leadership development programs, careful consideration must be given to trainee readiness, their desire to learn, and their capacity to develop into better leaders (Riggio, 2008). In a similar study, McCauley (2008) listed LDP success factors including alignment of leadership development objectives with business strategies, support of top-level executives, shared responsibility between human resources staff and line managers, manager responsibility for the development of subordinates, competency models, multiple development methods, and evaluation. After an extensive review of the literature, Leskiw and Singh (2007, p. 444), concluded that "six factors were found to be vital for effective leadership development: a thorough needs assessment, the selection of a suitable audience, the design of appropriate infrastructure to support the initiative, the design and implementation of an entire learning system, an evaluation system, and corresponding actions to reward success and to improve on deficiencies."

The researcher in the present study asked the training designers about several factors that should be considered in the process of designing of LDPs.

Needs assessment

According to Leskiw and Singh (2007), successful LDPs should start with a systematic needs assessment. They add that clear objectives for the program should be developed through an assessment process ensuring that the leadership development systems are somehow linked to the organisational strategy. When the researcher asked about the importance of needs assessment, most of the participants agreed that successful LDPs should start with a systematic needs assessment. For example, one of the respondents said:

> *"We have training need analysis on different levels. First of all we have the strategic agent of the government, so we know what kind of strategic needs are there and what is the most appropriate skills that in order to achieve those strategies or those ambitions. But then on individual level, we have our*

assessment serve as our feeding point for the training need analysis so each individual assessment, after each individual assessment we have a very detailed report that shares some light on the strength and weaknesses of each candidate and that we uses the core for this".

"So when you do the assessment you choose tools that are right for those participants or the organisation…I mean with that tool it'll help you to identify your training needs. I mean why you use this tool? To identify your training need, and these training need will help the faculty and to the organisation, I mean those are the areas where the employees need to improve or maybe the employee has hidden skills".

However, other respondents mentioned that assessment need is based on the need of the government, particularly if there are new initiatives:

"It's based on the need, what is the need from the customer, from the government entities and from the employee and also for the government. So we're looking for the need of the government the new initiatives, the new ideas, to support the government on that area. For example now we are focusing on the innovations, the government is focusing on developing the strategy of the innovations and all that, all that training provider have to focus on as we belong to the government and are working in the government and working to support the government entity".

Sometimes training programs are developed quickly without a thorough training needs analysis. Sometimes programs are developed with a one-glove-fits-all approach and, as a result, carelessness of planning is obvious (Mathafena, 2007). That is why training need assessment is one of the important factors to be considered in LDPs (Leskiw & Singh, 2007). In addition, leadership development needs to be linked to the strategies and goals of the organisation (Hurt & Homan, 2005). Moreover, Hughey and Mussnug (1997) claim

that training, when well developed and properly employed, can have the desired impact on the bottom line.

Audience selection

According to Wilson and Corrall (2008), one of the factors that affect any training program is the selection processes and the suitability of the participant nomination. Wilson and Corrall looked at the findings of the evaluation of the Leading Modern Public Libraries (LMPL) development program with reference to the leadership dynamic versus management. The program offered a strategic intervention to tackle the weakness in leadership development and factors that affect the program within the public library sector in England. Selection processes were identified in the study as one of the weaknesses. The authors are of opinion that the program would be successful if the right people attended. There was concern about the selection processes within the authorities of public library, and the consequent fitness of some participants'. Some of the participants were about to retire but the main aim of the program was to build future leaders. This is one of the particular problems with the future leaders program. It was obvious during the observation fieldwork that some of the participants were not quite suitable for the expected profile of a potential leaders group.

An appropriate audience for specific leadership development is suggested as important for LDPs, with the focus being on higher-level management positions (Leskiw & Singh, 2007). These authors argue that there should be customized LDPs for high potential employees for precise future roles in an organisation's succession plan, and another program for all employees. This would help in providing an alternative focused plan for future leaders while making sure leadership developmental opportunities still exist for the other employees of the organisation.

When the present researcher asked the training designers about the process of selecting the audience, it was suggested that there are two levels of selection: organisation selection and training provider's selection. This is discussed below.

Organisation selection:

Organisations are responsible for selecting the right people for enrolment in LDPs. The majority of the participants mentioned different criteria, such as age, educational level, background and designation, which they consider important. However, one of the participant said that they are some organisations that they know who are the potential leaders and based on that the selection is done

> *"Sometimes we have organisations much mature, they know who their participants to be invest in them in the program".*

> *"Some organisation they know they have fifteen people they want to train them, so they want to enroll them in the leadership program and they know their areas of strengths and weaknesses and everything, so we tailor-made the course based on those needs".*

> *"Some government entities or private, they come in with their selected candidates so for this case we don't do anything, because they know their selections".*

In the last two decades, there has been a lot of investment in developing the research of leadership, particularly in the development of LDPs (Fulmer & Vicere, 1996; Dolezalek, 2004; O'Leonard, 2010). Additionally, Abbas and Yaqoob (2009) claim that substantial investments in LDPs are being made in most governmental organisations within the UAE. Since this investment is happing in these organisations, to have the desired outcomes it is critical to choose the right candidates to attend LDPs.

Training provider's selection:

Once the organisations select the potential candidates to be enrolled in LDPs, it is sent to the training providers, which involves a different process. As mentioned earlier, the researcher interviewed three different types of LDPs: the MBRSG, the MBRCLD and Customized LDP (C). The MBRSG and the MBRCLD mentioned different criteria that they consider while selecting the participants: age, designation, qualification, nationality,

years of experience, managerial experience, performance appraisal and achievements. However, the other customized LDP (C) did not consider any particular criteria, as their target audience was all heads of sections. Once the selection is done by the organisations, the training providers (A and B) put the participants through a screening process as listed in Table 5.4.

Table 5.4: Screening process of LDPs

MBRSG	MBRCLD
Psychometric Test	Psychometric Test
Competency based assessment	One to one interview
One to one interview	_

The MBRSG start with an online psychometric test that sent to all participants who are able do the test at any time. The purpose of this test is to identify the candidate's needs and to evaluate who is eligible to enter the program. The next level is the competency-based assessment where different tools are used with all the candidates to make sure their answers are consistent. The competency-based assessment includes some puzzles that require candidates to work in a team to obtain a solution. The last level is the one to one interview where the results are discussed with the candidates to discuss the areas that they need to work on or to discuss the reasons why a candidate is not enrolled in the program.

The MBRCLD already has an assessment centre and all the potential candidates for LDPs go through it. As indicated in table 5.4, the psychometric test is done in order to look at their personality profile and leadership skills that certain participant has. Then followed by a one to one interview. The interview is to check their English language, ability and thinking.

The MBRCLD considers a lot when choosing the right candidates to enter the LDPs. Their assessment centre is one the powerful tools that they have. They even ask all the candidates to visit the assessment centre to do the psychometric test and to have the

chance to know exactly the purpose of this type of assessment. The MBRCLD will make sure that the potential candidate is doing the test, not someone else.

> *"Once we have these nominations we actually take them through detailed assessment, so the first assessment we're looking at is basic cognitive skills, and later behaviour assessment which we'll be looking at the leadership potential so to make sure that every place in the program is well earned, because programs are competitive. Nominations always are way more, much more than our actual number of participants who entered the programs, so we have to make sure that only those who are, you know, qualified for this program are entering the program"* added by one of the respondents from the MBRCLD.

Selections of trainers

When the researcher asked the training designers about the trainers who deliver LDPs, the answers were different. For example, the MBRSG considered about the importance of choosing UAE national trainers who have the experience of working in the Dubai government. The researcher also discovered that the MBRSG had different foreign trainers who were delivering the LDP. However, during the observations session the trainer designer usually monitors the participants of LDPs to ensure the success of the program. The MBRSG found out that there is no engagement or participation with the trainer. Because of this, the MBRSG now choose trainers who are UAE nationals, or foreigners' trainers who have lived and worked in Dubai government organisations for a long time.

> *"I was observing it, most of them they were local participants, the faculty was a foreign, the knowledge that was trying to transfer to the participants is all about the area and international level. I felt there is gap because if I bring expertise for example people working like twenty years supporting government in strategic planning putting the policies better than having someone who is doing for his country ".*

"I feel that the participants getting in touch with that expertise of people who working in the government and especially local, engaged more than the foreign"

"I think we need to understand the, the audience and the need for each training course, and I think now we already understand the needs, after evaluation the need of a training course and the trainees, we'll understand the best fit for them. Is it the locals, the professional, or the international speakers with who has more knowledge, so I think both of them are working but nowadays I think we're more focusing to the practitioners than international speakers".

The MBRSG considered the need of the participants and ways that they can benefit from the program. It is obvious that selecting the right trainers for LDPs might have an impact on its effectiveness.

When the researchers asked the MBRSG what is special about local trainers who are working for Dubai government organisations, the answer was the following:

"We started with bringing local trainee who are working in the government, so those people they have they can provide training program plus they can provide the participants with a real working environment experience, like you know they'll bring for them case study which are inside their organisation, where they can implement and use".

"The faculty he needs to know the materials what he's delivering he needs to link the materials with the real working environment and he needs to engage the participants in the classroom".

However, the situation was different with the MBRCLD where the program is delivered in English only. Their perceptions of selecting trainers or the training providers are different. For example, one said:

"It's true that UAE is developing. It's true that we are getting more universities in the UAE, but still we lack for the knowledge that those exterior universities. The knowledge that they have we still don't have it here. They've been exposed to so many experiences they have so many international faculty, candidates, students, so the exposure that they have the experience that they have, we still don't have it in UAE, that's why we look for these kind of universities".

Although the MBRCLD relies on external providers like famous universities to deliver the program, they still make sure to include some local trainers in their LDP. One of the respondents said:

"We have facilitators from all over the world. So the facilitators, they really come from all over the world, we have them coming from America, from Europe, from Africa, from everywhere, because we really want to make sure that the global knowledge is transferred through this program, so we take input from everywhere. The speakers when we get them usually we have all level speakers, one of the speakers we get from global level which will be out of the country and one would be local, so we make a balance".

The situation was different with Customized LDP (C) who only requires that the trainer should be bilingual and able to explain any unclear ideas for the participants. There were no preferences in selecting the trainers for their program.

Duration of the LDP

Duration is one of the factors that should be considered in the process of designing LDPs (Holt, 2011). The duration of LDPs in the MBRSG and the MBRCLD is between 12 and 18 months. The duration of the Customized LDP (C) is only three months. It is recommended that LDPs be a minimum of two years as suggested in the literature (Cacioppe, 1998; Lynham, 2000; Pernick, 2001; Collins & Holton, 2004; Hernez-Broome & Hughes, 2004).

Evaluation system

A successful leadership development initiative should have an effective evaluation system which measure the effectiveness of the program in fulfilling the initial needs outlined in the assessment process (Leskiw & Singh, 2007). There is a rapid change in organisations and their associated needs, therefore continuous assessment should be part of the program. A successful leadership development initiative should have an effective evaluation system, which measures the effectiveness of the program in satisfying the primary needs outlined in the learning outcomes for the program. The evaluation must focus on the impact that LDPs have on an organisation's capability to function more strategically because of its leadership ability (Ready & Conger, 2003).

When the researcher asked the training designers of the different LDPs if they have an evaluation system to measure the effectiveness of the LDPs, the majority said that they did not have an evaluation but that it was one of their plans.

One of the training designers said:

> *"Until now to be honest, no. This is one of our objectives in the future and it's very important to assess the outcome of the training and we have to work on that. I think it's just one of our objectives and that it should be started soon, it's very important ahh, to evaluate the outcome of the programs".*

According to Buckley and Caple (2004), the final stage in any training program must be to assess how efficient the training intervention has been. Nevertheless, despite its obvious significance, there is evidence that evaluation of the effectiveness of training programs in organisations is usually missing or inconsistent (Fullard, 2006).

Contents of LDPs

Training designer (B) has one LDP, of four categories: executive leaders, government leaders, young leaders and promising leaders. The contents of their LDPs are fixed and cannot be changed for individual organisations. Participants are enrolled based only on

the criteria for each category. However, training designer (A) has the option of offering a customized program based on an organisation's requirements. When the researcher asked about the content of the LDPs, the training designer (A) mentioned that they worked hard to modify the contents of their LDPs to reflect the UAE culture. One of the tools that they were using in the LDPs was to have every participant read a book and presents it to the class. The books, suggested by the training designer (A), focused on building leadership skills. They did not copy LDPs from western countries but they tried to customize them. For example, some of the books used during the program are "My Vision" and "Flashes of Thought" which are published by his highness Sheikh Mohammed bin Rashid Al Maktoum, the UAE Vice-President, Prime Minister and Ruler of Dubai. In addition, some different books from western countries were included so there was a balance.

One of the respondents from trainer designer (A) said:

"For our leadership programs we do take from the western as best practices as well as from UAE as Dubai government, because we got best practitioners in Dubai government and UAE. So you cannot, you cannot tell like the western they are bad or they are out fashioned or it doesn't suit us no, we do take what matches us and suits for us, so yes it's like a combination of everything".

Another one said:

"His highness Sheikh Mohammad Bin Rashid always set a good leader and he is an example of whatever you want to do, to teach and to reflect, we've got a very good sample in front of them. So yes we do that and taking from his own experience because this is, at the end this is sharing, so we got a model here, which people already know about but they need to know him more".

According to ElKaleh and Samier (2013), LDPs makes more sense if they are linked and supported by the values and culture of Arab countries, because this will allow the candidates to better understand the applications of theories within their own context.

Furthermore, the content of LDPs needs to be expanded, adjusted and aligned to the principles, experiences and cultures of Arab countries.

The majority of training designers from the MBRSG agreed on the importance of customizing the contents of LDPs. For example:

> *"So when we choose our faculty we try to, when they develop the material, they develop it based on our culture"*

Added by training designer from the MBRSG.

The training designer from the MBRCLD also mentioned the need to consider UAE culture in the contents of LDPs:

> *"When it comes, to answer your question regarding the university, what kind of culture, how to involve the culture UAE. Again it depends on the university itself. In so many occasions some of the universities they used Dubai an example or a case study in their course. So yea we, the university that we select they're aware of the UAE culture, they know what Dubai is right now and, as I said, some of them use it as a case study".*

In addition, training designer MBRCLD discussed their role in reviewing all the materials to make sure that it does not conflict with UAE culture. For example:

> *"We had some case studies, they conflict with the UAE culture and we have to reject the university itself".*

The case was different with the customized LDP (C) as they did not consider any customization of LDPs by including any examples related to the UAE culture in their program.

According to Mathafena (2007), leadership development programs must be well developed and appropriately implemented in order to have the desired outcomes. Leadership is conceptualised and enacted differently across cultures (Dickson et al., 2012). The majority of the knowledge and insights that make up the content of LDPs was created in research in the Western countries, mainly in the United States (Rousseau & Fried, 2001). These programs are local in scope, but at their heart lays a collection of global and international programs. Al-Dabbagh and Assaad (2010) argue that LDPs should address the local needs before outsourcing LDPs from the Western countries.

Theme 4: Evaluation of LDP effectiveness

To date, limited comprehensive models to guide evaluation research and practice in the field of leadership development have appeared in the literature (Clarke, 2012). According to Madsen et al. (2014), there has been little evaluation of leadership development program, in terms of outcomes, that underpin the delivery of the programs. One of the difficulties in leadership development evaluation is measuring whether participants have change following participation in a leadership development program (Gentry & Martineau, 2010). In spite of a growing number of published reports about the effectiveness of leadership development programs, much remains to be learned.

Many methods have been used to evaluate leadership development in several contexts, from businesses to social change (Jones, 2015). According to Martineau (2004), organisations may experience rapid change in their leadership needs; thus, the incorporation of continuous assessment of the program is recommended. The evaluation must focus on the impact that LDPs have on an organisation's capability to function more strategically because of its leadership ability (Ready & Conger, 2003).

The researcher in the study asked the training designers about the mechanisms that are used to measure the effectiveness of LDPs. The answers of the training designers showed that they are facing difficulties in measuring the effectiveness of LDPs. For example, the

training designer from the MBRSG mentioned that they do not measure the effectiveness of program:

> *"Until now to be honest, no we don't have, this is one of our objectives in the future and it's very important to assess the outcome of the training and we have to work on and it should be started soon. It is very important to evaluate the outcome of the programs so I think we'll start that one but we don't have experience to measure outcome"*

When the researcher reviewed and examined what exactly the training designers are doing in their programs, it showed that they only follow the Kirkpatrick model. According to Fullard (2006), the most powerful framework for evaluating the effectiveness of training programs has come from Kirkpatrick. The Kirkpatrick model is based on four levels (Kirkpatrick, 1959). The first level looks at the reaction of the participants and data is gathered in the end of the training program. The second level is learning. It assess whether the learning goals for the training program are met and is usually done by having an appropriate examination for the participants. The third level is behaviour which assesses whether the participants applied the new knowledge through attending a particular training course. The fourth level is results. It assesses the costs against the benefits, for example in terms of improved quality of the work or reduced costs for an organisation.

The situation with LDPs from the MBRSG and the MBRCLD is that they only follow the first level (reaction) and the second level (learning). In terms of the customized LDP (C), there was no evaluation of the program except at level one (reaction) where a survey was distributed to participants of LDPs to know about their satisfaction with the program.

Although there were no direct mechanisms for evaluating level three (behaviour) or level four (results), the researcher found different indicators that measures those levels. For example, one of the participants said:

> *"The employee got very developed, improved and he is doing well"*.

Most frequently, the behavioural criteria relies on observations of supervisors, subordinates and peers, that the leader has shown some tangible improvement. For instance, the leader is being supportive, listening better, or doing a better job of empowering followers through effective delegation and/or participation in decision-making (Jones, 2015).

In terms of the results criteria, the researcher found that graduates of LDPs have an improved chance of promotion and career growth, which can be considered a result. For instance:

> *"There are a lot of promotion been giving for the participants, who've been enrolled in our training program*", added by training designer (MBRSG)

> *"People who enter into the program they are trained and developed so usually what happens they are the one who get the promotion",* added by training designer (MBRCLD).

According to Jones (2015), the results criteria in LDP are usually: increased revenue, better performance, better customer service, higher quality, and do they pay dividends to the organisation.

Previous research on training evaluation has mostly focused on the extent to which organisations conduct evaluations at each of the four levels (Saks & Burke, 2012). For instance, it has constantly been reported that many organisations evaluate reactions and learning while very few of evaluate behaviour and results criteria (Blanchard et al., 2000; Kraiger, 2003; Sitzmann et al., 2008; Hughes & Campbell, 2009). Little research has investigated behavioural change (level three) through learning transfer or, especially, the factors that influence it (Homklin, 2014). One of the participants from the MBRSG, argued about learning transfer as an outcome of LDPs. For example, it was mentioned that participants who completed LDPs should apply the skills and knowledge learned to workplace. However, the results show that the participants who completed LDPs do not

have the chance to apply the skills learned, and that is because of their supervisors. One of the respondents stated:

> *"There is some resistance and difficulties to implement what they have learned. Some leaders would be afraid of their positions and they might be replaced."*

This shows that some supervisors do not support their subordinates, particularly if they want to apply a new idea at the workplace. Some are scared of losing their position if someone has a higher level of skills and knowledge. The effectiveness of a training program can be measured by the trainee's ability to transfer the newly skills learned on the job (Broad & Newstrom, 1992; Kozlowski & Salas, 1997; Holton et al., 2000; Bates, Holton, and Hatala, 2012). Research clearly reveals that learning transfer is complex and associated with several factors (Baldwin, & Ford, 1988; Burke & Hutchins, 2007; Rouiller & Goldstein, 1993). As leadership development becomes prevalent around the world, it is very important to understand the expectations of LDPs, the needs of participants, and whether the LDPs have achieved their stated objectives (Gentry et al., 2014).

Theme 5: Suggestions for improving the effectiveness of LDP

Coaching and mentoring

According to Day (2000, p. 582), "a leadership development approach is oriented toward building capacity in anticipation of unforeseen challenges (i.e. development)". However, a more focused analysis of the results of the present study suggests important conclusions about the most effective mechanism of LDPs in Dubai public organisations. Coaching and mentoring were stated to be the most essential tools recommended for improving the effectiveness of LDPs. The majority of the respondents in the study noted that coaching and mentoring are the best mechanisms used in LDPs, because they are more practical and effective than training courses. This finding is consistent with the work of Day (2000) which also found that coaching and mentoring is one of the most popular practices for developing leaders.

As a respondent noted:

> *" I am very believer in mentoring. I love mentoring, it's really helpful and I suggest who ever will do a leadership program to have a mentoring".*

Another respondent added:

> *"But mentoring was really a change for me in my personality".*

Another said:

> *"Yes we have plans to use coaches in our programs".*

Leadership coaching is broadly defined in terms of a relationship between a coach and a client that facilitates the client to be a more effective leader (Witherspoon & White, 1997; Peterson & Hicks, 1999; Douglas & Morley, 2000). Coaching is one-on-one learning, and it is an ongoing process used to improve a career and to develop leaders (Day 2001).

Coaching is preferred by most organisations for a short period because, surprisingly, the cost of coaching from an external consultant ranges from $1,500 per day to more than $100,000 for a multiyear program (Day, 2001).

However, a study by Al Naqbi (2010) that examined the efficiency and effectiveness of leadership development practises in the UAE showed that only 8% of leadership development programs used coaching. In contrast, coaching accounts for 56% of leadership development programs in Scotland. This shows that coaching is not used a lot in UAE and that is why the participants are suggesting it. Many organisations in the UAE are seeking to implement various forms of LDPs. However, they are still confused about the LDPs most appropriate to their needs (Al Naqbi, 2010).

Improving the evaluation mechanism

There have been many attempts to develop instruments to evaluate the effectiveness of LDPs (Antonioni, 1996; Church & Bracken, 1997). In spite of the growing literature,

comprehensive evaluation of leadership development programs is not common and few studies completely measure the outcomes of such programs. Importantly, they mainly ignore outcomes for, and impacts on, the organisation (Day, 2001; Russon & Reinelt, 2004). The majority of the participants mentioned the importance of improving the evaluation mechanisms for LDPs. For example, one of the respondents said:

> *"It is very important to assess the outcome of the training and we have to work on that. It is just one of our objectives and that it should be started soon."*

Another respondent suggested using 360-degree feedback:

> *"360-degree feedback is great if you implemented in Dubai government because which the people find it's not very effective. I think the 360 is very important and really if you want to assess the leader the 360 assessment is very important to assess the leaders, the impact is on the all because the leadership is about influence, and how you influence the others".*

360-degree feedback allows leaders to improve their performance and increase the communication between subordinates and leaders (Kuchinke 2000). However, Kuchinke (2000) argue that many organisations do not apply the full scope of LDPs, and may not achieve the desired outcomes. For instance, 360-degree feedback is usually used in the USA and the UK but cultural differences have not been considered to enable its use at an international level (McDowall & Mabey 2008). In addition, China and the UAE are considered to be high value in power distance (Minkov & Hofstede, 2011) and there was resistance to use of 360-degree feedback as a measurement tool in Chaina (Gao et al., 2011). Fletcher et al. (1998) believe that the instruments of 360-degree feedback programs need to be tested just like any other psychometric tool: otherwise, they may lack reliability and validity. In the UAE as well, some Emirati managers may be resistant to 360-degree feedback because of their high power distance (Livermore, 2010).

Given the popularity of the 360-degree feedback in the UK and the US, researchers have raised fears about using this type of assessment in different cultures, particularly in

Eastern cultures (Entrekin & Chung, 2001; Hofstede, 2001). Some recent scholars support the claim that multisource feedback has different effects in different cultures (Shipper, Hoffman, & Rotondo, 2007). That is why leadership training, measurement and feedback need to be adapted locally in order to be successful.

Day (2001) argues that 360-degree feedback is one of the most popular practices to develop leaders but we should make sure of its validity and reliability within the context of the UAE. Organisations should be assured that their investment in LDPs does, indeed, pay off.

However, other respondent argued for the importance of having different types of assessment in order to measure the outcome of the program. For example, one of the respondents said:

> *"We should have a continues assessment"*

Another respondent added:

> *"I think it's just more focusing on engaging people and develop the learning transfer within the participants, focusing on brining the training course to be more excited for people."*

It can be shown from the results that some talked about the concept of learning transfer as an outcome of LDPs. Baldwin and Ford (1988) define learning transfer as the degree to which trainees effectively apply knowledge, skills, and attitudes acquired in a training program to on-the-job work performance. Many organisations are investing in training programs but these programs can only be considered effective if participants have the ability to transfer the skills they learn to the workplace (Tonhauser & Buker, 2016).

Enriching the contents of LDPs

The respondents mentioned the importance of modifying the contents of LDPs. For example, one of the respondents noted:

"I think we're struggling a bit with the content development of training course which is the speaker they have their own thought about any topic in the program, but content development is not that rich, we don't have a rich content development".

"I think it's just more focusing on the enriching the content, using the new technology, engaging the people and develop the knowledge transfer within the participants".

According to Holt (2011), several LDPs are not effective because they lack the content required by future leaders. Scholars have used different rationales to describe why organisations are not able to create effective LDPs. For example, the competencies needed to be an accomplished leader are complex (Collins et al., 2000), and it is suggested by McCauley et al. (1998) that a full range of leadership development experiences includes mentoring, job assignments, developmental relationships, on-the-job experiences, feedback systems, exposure to senior executives, leader-follower relationships, and formal training.

In terms of leadership theories that underpin LDPs, particularly in LDPs from the MBRSG, interviewees mentioned different types of leadership theories, such as charismatic leadership, servant leadership and transformational leadership.

"Are you focused on the charismatic leadership charisma and some of them focused on the servant leadership. Who's their leader, who's supporting and serving the people and transformation leadership. All of these model is just looking to the leadership from different part of view. Based on our culture and our leader and what we have documented from the success of leadership story, what we find in United Arab of Emirates, we found that our leadership is more focused on positive energy".

According to Bass (2000), transformational leaders "move followers to go beyond their own self-interests for the good of their group, organisation or community, country or society as a whole" (p. 21). Yet, Bass later suggested that servant leaders "select the needs of others as [their] [highest] priority" (p. 33). Charismatic leadership is considered a leadership style that focuses on development (Choi 2006). Choi also argues that charismatic leaders are efficient and demonstrate various talents and abilities. This type of leader can effectively inspire followers to accomplish their targets. In terms of the concept of positive energy, which participants mentioned, Al Maktoum (2013) said in the book of Flashes of Thought, "Positive Energy is born of optimism. Our religion assures us that you are optimistic, you shall find what you seek" (p. 21). This supports the study of ElKaleh and Samier (2013) who argue that Arab countries usually get their cultural roots and practices from Islam.

Another respondent from the customized LDP (C) said the following:

> *"Yea, enough with the classes, it doesn't have to get something from the books, we come here we don't know what to do, and leadership as a subject or as a knowledge it changes. Enough of you know the old ideas of leadership. There are new types of leadership, there are new visions and we should get more leadership programs out of our government visions, out of Sheikh Mohammad, from our government. Enough of getting you know from people outside. Yes it's good but we are here working in Dubai government, so we have certain things and if you check it Sheikh Mohammad's sayings it's what we live daily. He's talking about closed doors, he's talking about you know making your staff giving ideas, considering ideas".*

The customized LDP (C), copy their LDPs from western countries without having any customizations in their program. As a result, one of the suggestions was to enrich the contents of their LDPs and to take more examples from the UAE.

Customized LDPs

During the interview, one of the participants from the MBRCLD commented that customized LDPs are required. As mentioned earlier, the MBRCLD has LDPs based on different categories (executive leaders, government leaders, young leaders and promising leaders). There have been offering this program for 11 years and they do not customize it based on the request of the organisation. The participants are enrolled based on the categories that are offered. As a result, the suggestion was, in future, to offer customized programs for organisation.

> *"I think it is the time to change, to improve our leadership programs and to introduce more custom made programs for number of entities".*

Another element also suggested by the training designer from the MBRCLD is to have an Arabic version of LDPs. They even mentioned that there are few training providers who can deliver LDPs in Arabic in the Middle East. The recommendation was that we need more training delivered in Arabic.

> *"Maybe because in the Middle East we don't have service providers in Arabic, we have maybe one or two".*

The results of this present research raise several suggestions to improve the effectives of LDPs. Participants agreed on the importance of having customized LDPs that are based on the participants' needs. According to Gentry et al. (2014), LDPs should be customized to the specific kinds of participants' needs.

In summary, it became apparent from the interviews with key decision makers and training designers that significant investment in leadership development programs are being made in most Dubai government organisations. However, the results show that there are several factors that affect the effectiveness of leadership development programs in Dubai government organisations. The process of learning transfer is influenced by factors such as work environment. The majority of the participants believe that it is

essential to have a supportive work environment that provides the chance to transfer learning. In addition, the participants offered many suggestions for improvement of the effectiveness of LDPs. One of the most important suggestions was the concept of learning transfer. leadership development programs are considered effective if participants have the chance to transfer the skills and knowledge learned to their work place.

Chapter 6: THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

The main purpose of this chapter is to provide the conceptual rationale for the study. First, it considers different definitions of leadership. It then defines leadership development programs (LDPs) and the factors affecting learning transfer. This chapter also examines the influnce of leadership styles and the work environment on the relationship between factors of ability and motivation that imapct on learning transfer and transfer effort-performance expectations and performance outcome expectations. Finally, the proposed theoretical framework and hypotheses are discussed to provide conceptual justifications for the study.

6.1 Leadership development programs (LDPs)

Leadership development programs (LDPs) are designed to develop the leadership skills of leaders in order to achieve the objectives of the organisation (Hamilton & Cynthia, 2005). The development of leaders is an expressed goal in most organisations, and leadership development plays an important role in the success of organisations (Avolio & Hannah, 2009). The rapid changes in business, technology, political and social factors have required the development of effective leadership skills. Therefore, LDPs have become an increasing priority for government organisations and business (Cacioppe, 1998; Holt, 2011). Businesses and organisations value the importance of training potential leaders and they understand the value of ongoing and continuous LDPs that help talented managers become real leaders (Day, 2000; Thach & Heinselman 2000; Day et al., 2014).

The effectiveness of leadership development is defined as measuring the approaches used in LDPs that help in building the leadership skills (Collins & Holton, 2004, p. 221). According to Çifci (2014), training specialists and practitioners have always sought to build up methods in order to improve the effectiveness of training programs. Holton (2000) argues that the effectiveness of training programs is measured by the trainee's motivation to transfer learning to their work. As mentioned in literature review chapter, there is much investment in training programs but they can only be considered effective if the skills and knowledge learned in training can be transferred successfully on the job (Tonhauser & Buker, 2016).

In this present study, learning transfer is considered one of the key outcomes of attending LDPs. Learning transfer is defined as the degree to which trainees effectively practise skills, knowledge, and attitudes learned during training programs in their workplace (Baldwin & Ford, 1988).

6.2 Learning transfer

The literature of learning transfer is primarily concerned with understanding the concept of learning transfer, factors that influence transfer, and measurement of transfer factors. According to Hutchins et al. (2013), research on learning transfer continues to be one of the more pervasive areas in the literature of human resource development and training. The fundamental assumption of Learning Transfer is that the performance of the trainees is improved through well-defined training programs (Burke & Hutchins, 2007). Hence, learning transfer refers to the degree to which skills, knowledge and competencies learned during training programs are applied at the workplace (Baldwin & Ford, 1988; Burke & Baldwin, 1999; Day, 2000; Holton, Bates, & Ruona, 2000; Day & Goldstone, 2012; Saks & Burke, 2012). Besides, Holton (2005) claims that the role of learning transfer is to formulate and recognize the process of learning and how learning can be transferred in both individual and organisational contexts.

In the literature, there is an inconsistency in the use of the terms learning and training. Though learning and training are related, they are not the same. Individuals are trained in order to learn something new (Salas, Tannenbaum, Kraiger, & Smith-Jentsch, 2012). For the purposes of the present study, the term learning transfer is used.

Several studies have examined different constructs as they affect learning transfer. There is some recognition that there is a need to examine learning transfer as a multi-level, multistage process (Kavanagh, 1998). As well, there is some recognition that learning transfer is affected by individual factors or trainee characteristics, training design or enabling factors, and work environment or transfer climate (Baldwin & Ford, 1988; Tracey et al., 1995; Holton, 1996, 2005). Kavanagh (1998) provides evidence that these factors have an impact on learning transfer differentially during different stages of training (e.g. pre-training, training and post-training). However, despite the significance of learning transfer from both a scholarly and practical point of view, conceptual models underpinning the process of learning transfer are limited. One of the most comprehensive measures to enable multilevel analysis of learning transfer was provided by

Holton et al. (2000). Their measure, the Learning Transfer System Inventory (LTSI), was used for the purposes of the present study.

Further, one of the most dominant models to examine outcomes of training that have emerged in the Human Resources Development (HRD) literature is the Kirkpatrick model. The Kirkpatrick model conceptualises training evaluation at four levels: reaction, learning, behaviour and results. Each level of evaluation is an incremental indicator of deep learning with measurable outcomes, while providing directions for improvement in content and context of learning interventions (Kirkpatrick, 1959; Kraiger, 2002; Fullard 2006; Brown & Gerhardt; 2002; Kraiger, 2002; Sitzmann et al., 2008). From a practical point of view, there is evidence to indicate that while many organisations conduct evaluations at the level of reaction and learning, very few examine the impact of learning interventions on behaviour and results (Blanchard et al., 2000; Kraiger, 2003; Sitzmann et al., 2008; Hughes & Campbell, 2009, Twitchell et al., 2000).

From a scholarly point of view, it has also been noted that motivation to transfer learning can be considered a credible predictor of learning transfer (Axtell, Maitlis, & Yearta, 1997; Derk-Jan, Nijhof, Wognum, & Veldkamp, 2006), with some recognition that motivation (both effort-performance motivation and performance to outcome motivation) directly affects individual performance (Holton, et al., 2000).

While most of the studies (Carbone, 2009; Nicolaidou & Petridou, 2011) argue that LDPs have applied the Kirkpatrick model to measure the outcome of their programs, very few studies (Khasawneh, 2004; Hutchins et al., 2013; Khasawneh et al., 2006; Salas et al., 2012) have focussed on the various factors that affect learning transfer. Thus, from a scholarly point of view it is important to understand specific factors that might impinge on learning transfer (Hutchins et al., 2013; Day & Goldstone, 2012; Saks & Burke, 2012), which the study does in a new context (the context being the Dubai government organisations). Gaps in scholarship have also been identified with regard to the constructs that can moderate the relationship (Sinha, 2001; Chan & Drasgow, 2001; Brenner, 2004; Hanna, 2007; Sørensen, 2017) and the present study examines this area.

The following sections will provide a conceptual justification for the proposed framework for this study and propose hypotheses for the expected relationships between the variables within the framework.

As proposed in Chapter 4, the study is located and justified within a broader framework informed by both a review of scholarly literature and the findings of an exploratory phases of data collection (phases (1) and (2)). As explained in Chapter 4, in the exploratory phases (phase 1), qualitative interviews were conducted with ten senior leaders in Dubai government organisations, to examine the conceptualisations of effective leadership in their organisations. Furthermore, in phase (2) of the exploratory study, ten semi-structured interviews were conducted with key decision-makers and training designers. The purpose was to examine the expected outcomes from LDPs, and to identify the content and conceptualisation of LDPs as implemented in Dubai government organisations. The following sections build the conceptual and contextual justification for the proposed framework and formulate the hypotheses.

6.3 The theoretical framework of the study

The framework of this study was developed based on the review of literature and the gaps identified in the literature with regard to learning transfer. Few studies have examined the moderating effect of the work environment and leadership styles on the relationship between ability, motivation and transfer effort-performance expectations and performance-outcome expectations. In addition, the relationships in this framework have been informed by the results of the qualitative phases (1 & 2) of the study. As discussed in the literature review chapter, leadership is conceptualised and enacted differently across cultures (Dickson et al., 2012). For example, the findings from phase (1) provide evidence about leadership conceptualisation amongst senior leaders and about what makes an effective leader in Dubai government organisations. The results in phase (1) show that the quality of effective leaders in Dubai government organisations is similar to that described in the literature as a transformational leadership style (Bass, 1995; Bass, 1995; Avolio & Bass, 2004). Most of the respondents in phase (1) described effective leaders as those who inspire others, motivate others, talk optimistically about the future, empower others and lead by example. Other respondents described leaders *"as the one who has the ability to take initiatives and make decisions"*. The

results from phase (1) also show that effective leaders are those with a long-term vision and effective communication skills.

Burns (1978) argues that a transformational leader is someone who elevates subordinates and him/herself to a higher level of inspiration and morals. Further, according to Den, Hartog and Koopman, (2001), transformational leadership focuses on inspiring and motivating followers to perform beyond expectation. This aligns with findings from phase (1) and is similar to the characteristics of a transformational leadership defined by Avolio et al. (1999).

A review of the literature shows a direct relationship between factors that have an impact on learning transfer (Ford, Kozlowski, Kraiger, Salas, & Teachout, 1997; Richman-Hirsch, 2001). The findings from the phase (2) exploratory study also provide evidence that there are different factors, such as work environment and lack of support from supervisors and peers, that can affect learning transfer. These findings align with the scholarly literature (Ford & Quinones, 1992; Rouiller & Goldstein, 1993; Quinones & Ford, 1995; Tracey, Tannenbaum & Kavanagh, 1995; Richman-Hirsch, 2001; Bates & Khasawneh, 2005; Burke & Hutchins, 2007) and show the work environment to be an essential factor that influences the process of learning transfer.

A key finding that emerged from phases (1) and (2) qualitative data was the expectation that participants who completed LDPs should have a self-awareness of their own skills and knowledge, and practice them at their workplace. The finding provides evidence of metacognition skill that is defined as a learner's awareness of his or her own process of learning (Lord & Hall, 2005).

For example, one of the respondents argued that:

> *"Participants learn different leadership skills in LDPs and they have to think and use these skills and practise it in at work".*

Further, another respondent stated that:

> *"True leader is the person who can lead himself first before leading anyone else".*

This conceptualisation of leadership supports the definition of meta-cognition, which is recognised in the literature as an important concept in cognitive theory (Lord & Hall, 2005), and is defined as a learner's awareness of his/her own process of learning. There is evidence from the literature in the leadership domain that, meta-cognition skills reflect self-awareness and monitoring ability to practise the skills learned on the job (Mumford et al., 2000; Day, Schleicher, Unckless, & Hiller, 2002).

The conceptual model, as presented in Figure (6.1), comprises different sets of variables informed by the literature and by qualitative phases (1) and (2). The independent variables are the factors impacting on learning transfer, such as work environment, and ability and motivation, as evidenced through phases (1) and (2) data and informed by a call for a multilevel examination of factors impacting learning transfer (Hutchins et al., 2013; Day & Goldstone, 2012; Saks & Burke, 2012). For example, it is expected that the employees' performance at work will improve (Holton et al., 2000) when they apply the newly learned skills on the job (Reber & Wallin, 1984; Kontoghiorghes, 2002; Chan & Drasgow, 2001; Edwards, 2013). Previous studies also demonstrate that the work environment is one of the major factors that affect the process of learning transfer (Yamnill & McLean, 2001; Gaudine & Saks, 2004; Bates & Khasawneh, 2005; Hawley & Barnard, 2005; Burke & Hutchins, 2007).

In terms of the dependent variable, it may be argued that performance is to some degree contingent upon the expectations of trainees' that their effort will lead to improved performance and that improved performance should result in some type of reward (Khasawneh, 2004). For example, some studies (Axtell, Maitlis, & yearta, 1997; Derk-Jan, Nijhof, Wognum, & Veldkamp, 2006), found that motivation to transfer learning is considered as a predictor of transfer, while other studies found out as an outcome variable that influenced by an individual motivation to learn (Kontoghiorghes, 2002). Drawing on the LTSI framework, the dependent variables that were measured as an indicator or predictor of performance in this present research include transfer effort-performance expectations (or the trainee's expectation that effort in the right direction will lead to being able to perform at a certain level), and performance-outcome expectations (the expectation that performance at a certain level will lead to expected outcomes, that are fair and equitable) (Vroom, 1964; Lawler, 1973).

Noe (1986) for example, has provided evidence that a trainee will be more motivated to practise the newly learned skills if they believe that their effort will lead to performance and that performance will result in some type of outcomes, such as reward. Later studies (Axell, Maitlis & Yearta, 1997; Derk-Jan, Nojhof, Wognum & Veldkamp, 2006) provide further evidence that motivation to transfer learning is considered a predictor of transfer. Studies have measured the effectiveness of training programs by examining the trainee's motivation to transfer the skills learned to their job (Baldwin & Ford, 1988; Broad & Newstrom, 1992; Kozlowski & Salas, 1997; Roe, 1997). Some studies (Axtell, Maitlis, & Yearta, 1997; Derk-Jan, Nijhof, Wognum, & Veldkamp, 2006), suggest that motivation to transfer learning is a predictor of transfer while other studies found out as an outcome variable that influenced by an individual motivation to learn (Kontoghiorghes, 2002). Thus, in the present study, learning transfer is operationalised as motivation to transfer learning as measured by transfer effort-performance expectations and performance-outcome expectations.

In addition to examining the direct relationship between antecedent and outcome variables as stated above, the study also looks at the moderating impact of relevant constructs on the nature of the relationship, thereby addressing the gap in the literature. For example, while a number of studies (e.g. Baldwin & Ford, 1988; Currie, Tolson & Booth, 2007; Lance et al., 2002; Liu & Smith, 2011) explored the importance of work environment on the learning transfer process, the moderating impact of work environment factors on the relationship between ability, motivation and transfer effort-performance expectations and performance-outcome expectations has not been examined. Research indicates that supportive work environment provide employees with the motivation and ability to practise newly learned knowledge and skills on the job (Tracey et al., 1995; Sinha, 2001; Brenner, 2004). Specifically, the present study examines work environment as a moderator on the relationship between ability, motivation and transfer effort-performance expectations and performance-outcome expectations.

Further, a major theme that emerged from both exploratory phases was that a transformational leadership style is the most preferred approach used by senior leaders in Dubai government organisations. The qualitative interviews with senior leaders (phase 1) and training designers and key decision makers (phase 2) indicated that one of the key outcomes of LDPs is that those who have completed them should have self-awareness of the leadership skills learned and have the

ability to transfer learning to the workplace. This was an interesting finding and provided an impetus to explore whether LDP participants utilized their leadership styles in ways that can strengthen the relationship between enablers such as ability, motivation and work environment on outcomes including transfer effort-performance expectations and performance-outcome expectations.

No studies have yet examined the moderating impact of leadership styles; although, there is evidence to indicate that leadership styles might strengthen or weaken the relationship between antecedents and outcome factors. For example, there is some evidence to indicate that leaders with more mature leadership skills are able to reflect on their own learning, with transformational leaders expected to be more capable of developing and enhancing their metacognitive skills (Ruggieri et al., 2013). There is also some evidence to indicate that learners who have self-awareness of their own process of learning are more able to monitor and evaluate their learning progress (Winn & Snyder, 1996). Specifically, this ability, known as metacognition, plays an essential role in self-awareness, which has been noted by many scholars to be foundational to leadership development (Gardner, Avolio, Luthans, May, & Walumbwa, 2005). According to Lord and Hall (2005), metacognitive skills are particularly important for leaders who already have developed basic leadership skills, and enhance their alibility to monitor and assess the effectiveness of the leadership approach that they are using.

Learners who have the ability to control their learning process are more likely to be effective in their learning experiences (Flavell, 1979; Kuhn & Dean, 2004; Hanna, 2007). Increased self-awareness of one's learning processes also leads trainees to be more motivated and more effective with regard to their learning experiences (Flavell, 1979; Kuhn & Dean, 2004; Hanna, 2007). More recently, Ruggieri et al. (2013) provided evidence that, of the various leadership styles, transformational leadership is expected to be more effective in enhancing metacognitive skills. The characteristics of transformational leadership ensure that behaviours encourage personal growth, which will help LDP graduates become more aware of their own abilities (Ruggieri et al., 2013). The phase (1) data provided evidence that transformational leadership appears to be the style that was reflected by the senior leaders in Dubai government organisations. In addition, transformational style of leadership is reflective of metacognition ability. The study, therefore, not only examines the styles demonstrated by those who have

completed LDPs, but how variant styles of leadership (Transformational, Transactional and Laissez-faire) can moderate the relationship between ability, motivation, and work-environment factors and transfer effort-performance expectations and performance-outcome expectations variables (as a predictor of learning transfer).

Few studies have examined the impact of moderating factors on the relationship between ability, motivation and transfer effort-performance expectations and performance- outcome expectations. Specifically, the findings in the present study show that some of the participants who have completed LDPs do not apply the skills and knowledge learned to the workplace. It was noted by the leaders that the trainees who had attended leadership development programs (LDPs) had some resistance to change and were not motivated to transfer learning, despite all the other conditions being present. For example, one of the respondents in phase (2) said:

> "*They (participants) do not get the chance to exercise their leadership skills and to practise what they have learned from LDPs".*

Another respondent said:

> *"Employees should practice the leadership skills in their organisations but if the work environment is not supportive, employees will not be able to practice the skills learned."*

Another said:

> "*Work environment impact on the success of leadership development programs".*

Drawing from these findings (both scholarly gaps and findings from phase (1) and phase (2) qualitative data) it may be proposed that work environment factors and leadership styles moderate the relationship between factors of ability, motivation, and work environment that impact on learning transfer and transfer effort-performance expectations and performance-outcome expectations.

The framework (shown in Figure (6.1)) specifically examines the direct relationship between ability, motivation and work environment factors and transfer effort-performance expectations and performance-outcome expectations in the context of Dubai government organisations. In

addition, the moderating impact of leadership styles and work environment on the relationship is also examined. From a practical point of view, it is expected that the results will provide insights about the most appropriate leadership style for use in the context of Dubai government organisations that will allow the participant in a LDP to transfer learning. Thus, the main gap in the literature that is being addressed by the study is the lack of evidence about whether leadership styles and work environment moderate the relationship between factors of ability and motivation that influence learning transfer and transfer effort-performance expectations and performance-outcome expectations.

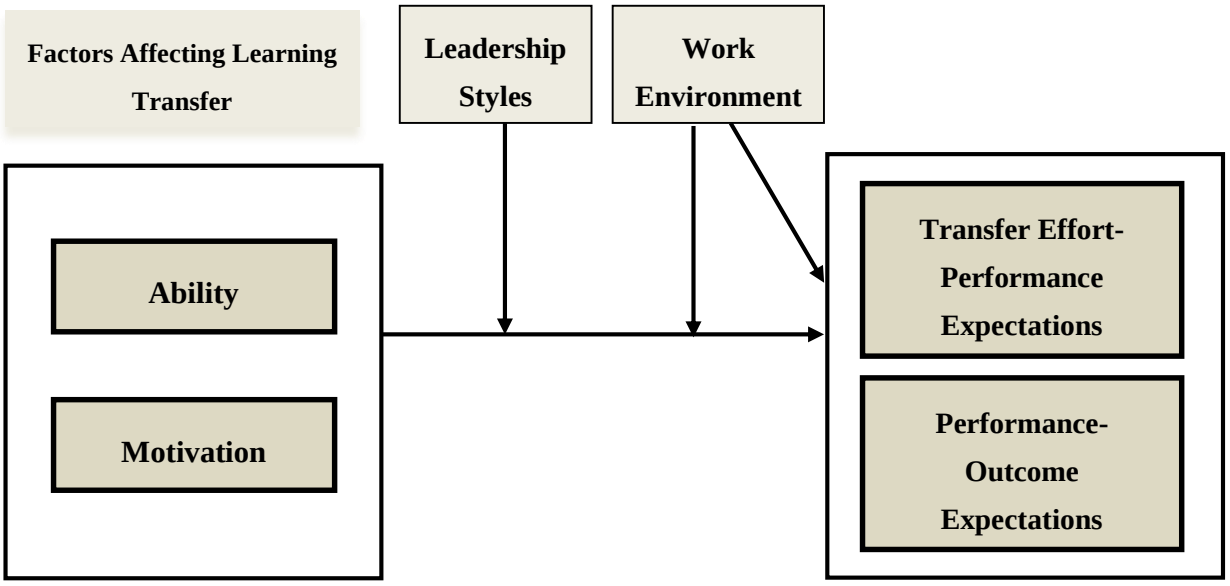


Figure 6.1: The Conceptual Model

Drawing on the above discussion, the present study addresses the following key research questions:

1. What are the conceptualisations of effective leadership in Dubai government organisations?
2. What are the expected outcomes of LDPs in Dubai government organisations?
3. Do leadership styles and work environment moderate the relationship between factors of ability and motivation that affect learning transfer and transfer effort-performance expectations and performance-outcome expectations?

6.4 Hypotheses

The following hypotheses are tested in this study:

The direct effect:

The relationship between ability and transfer effort-performance expectations.

Ability factors refer to those elements that allow trainees to transfer learning effectively (Holton et al., 2000). Ability involves different elements: content validity, transfer of design, opportunity to use and personal capacity for transfer.

Content validity is the extent which trainees perceive that the content of training to precisely reflects job requirements, and that materials and methods taught in training are similar to what is used in the real workplace (Holton et al., 2000). To ensure the effectiveness of a training program, the content of the program should reflect the actual job demands. In addition, it is important that the materials used in training are similar to those used in the job (Holton, 2000) so that an individual will be able to use the methods and techniques learned in training program and perform more effectively at the workplace (Khasawneh, 2006).

Transfer of design element is defined by Holton et al. (2000) as "the degree to which training has been designed and delivered to give trainees the ability to transfer learning to the job" (p. 334). If the training program is designed in a way that allow the use of methods activities and exercises

that are similar to what is used at workplace, then an individual will be able to apply new skills and knowledge learned on the job.

The opportunity to use what is learned during training at the workplace is another ability element that can have a direct impact on transfer (Baldwin & Ford, 1988). If the trainees are provided with meaningful material that relates to what they do on their jobs, then they will be able to use the skills taught in training

Personal capacity for transfer refers to the "extent to which individuals have the time, energy, and mental space in their work life to make changes required to transfer learning to the job" (Holton et al., 2000, p. 334). A number of scholars (Baldwin & Ford, 1988; Tracey, Bates, Holton, & Seyler, 1998; Holton et al., 2000; Tracey, Hinkin, Tannenbaum, & Mathieu, 2001; Khasawneh, 2004) support the importance of the ability of the participant to use the skills learned to the workplace to improve the transfer effort. If topics, modules, and content areas of LDPs have nothing to do with the participant's job, then the ability to transfer learning will be low (Gentry et al., 2014). Leadership development programs should be well designed to correspond with trainees' self-perceived needs and expectations. Well designed LDPs will increase their overall effectiveness. Therefore, the following hypothesis is tested:

Hypothesis 1: Ability is positively related to transfer effort-performance expectations.

The relationship between ability and performance-outcome expectations.

Employees usually act based on the expected consequences (Yuan & Woodman, 2010). For instance, employees are more likely to practise the skills learned on the job when they expect an outcome. In addition, Noe (1986) argues that trainees with high levels of ability, who apply their newly learned skills to the workplace, report improved performance outcome expectations and believe that their effort will have an outcome. According to Baldwin and Ford (1988), the opportunity to use the skills learned in training on the job can have a direct impact on learning transfer. If the trainees do not have the opportunity to apply the skills learned during training, then they will not have the chance to transfer learning and there will be no outcome (Ford & Quinones, 1992). Expectations are an integral part of training in the work domain (Gentry et al., 2014). Therefore, the following hypothesis is tested:

Hypothesis 2: Ability is positively related to performance-outcome expectations.

The relationship between motivation and transfer effort-performance expectations

Motivation to transfer learning to the workplace was found to be important particularly after attending a training program and have the effort to transfer the newly learned skills at on the job (Devos, Dumay, Bonami, Bates, & Holton, 2007; Burke & Hutchins, 2007; Kauffeld, Bates, Holton, & Müller, 2008; Gegenfurtner, Festner, Gallenberger, Lehtinen & Gruber, 2009). According to Holton et al. (2000), transfer effort-performance expectations is the extent to which an individual believes that investing effort to utilize the skills learned in training will affect future productivity. Motivation to transfer is a trainee's desire to put into practice the skills and knowledge presented in a training program (Noe & Schmitt, 1986).

A number of studies (Noe, 1986; Tannenbaum & Yukl, 1992; Salas & Cannon-Bowers, 2001; Khasawneh, 2004) argue that the trainees' motivation to transfer the new skills and to apply the knowledge learned to the workplace will have a positive impact on transfer effort-performance expectations. If employees believe that a benefit is received from attending leadership development program, then the motivation to transfer learning is likely to occur. Accordingly, this explains the expectancy theory, which is understood as a motivational aspect for an individual which is shown to be a predictor of transfer (Thierry, 2002; Ayers, 2005; Merriam & Leahy, 2005; Greenberg, 2011; Lunenburg, 2011). According to Wieland-Handy (2008), motivation directly influences learning. If an individual's motivation is high, then the level of learning transfer will correspondingly improve. Therefore, the following hypothesis is tested:

Hypothesis 3: Motivation is positively related to transfer effort-performance expectations.

The relationship between motivation and performance-outcome expectations

According to Hutchins et al. (2013), motivation to transfer has a direct influence on the transfer outcomes. Trainees usually make the decision to apply the learned skills at the workplace by the end of a training program. This intention is strengthened by performance outcomes expectations and the overall support that trainees receive once they return to work. For example, the study by Edward (2013) argues that if an employee believes that attending a training program will lead to

a desirable outcome such as a salary increase, then the motivation to transfer learning will increase. Thus, greater the expectation that performance will lead to desirable outcomes, more is the likelihood that motivation to transfer is strengthened (Werner, O'Leary-Kelly, Baldwin, and Wexley, 1994; Hutchins et al., 2013; Çifci, 2014). Therefore, the following hypothesis is tested:

Hypothesis 4: Motivation is positively related to performance-outcome expectations.

The relationship between work environment and transfer effort-performance expectations

According to Holton (2000), transfer effort-performance expectations is the extent to which an individual believes that practising the newly learned skills will lead to changes in individual performance. The effectiveness of a training program is measured by the trainee's motivation to transfer learning to the workplace (Baldwin & Ford, 1988; Ford & Quinones, 1992; Broad & Newstrom, 1992; Roe, 1997). A trainee will be more motivated to apply the newly learned skills if they believe that their effort will lead to performance and that performance will result in some type of outcomes, such as reward (Noe, 1986). Many current reviews of training literature (Kozlowski & Hults, 1987; Baldwin & Ford, 1988; Blume et al., 2010) argue that work environment can have a powerful impact on the extent to which newly acquired skills and knowledge are used in the workplace. According to Richman-Hirsch (2001), the work environment can either encourage or discourage the application of newly learned skills. Hawley and Barnard (2005) examined the factors that can influence the transfer effort, and suggest peer support and supervisor support are the two most important factors affecting learning transfer. According to the Learning Transfer System Inventory (LTSI) model developed by Holton et al. (2000), the work environment consists of different elements: supervisor/manager support, supervisor/manager sanction, peer support, and resistance/openness to change. There is evidence that the work environment plays a crucial role in influencing the process of learning transfer (Ford & Quinones, 1992; Khasawneh, 2004; Hawley & Barnard 2005; Bates & Khasawneh 2005; Burke & Hutchins 2007). The transfer effort is related to the support that an employee gets from supervisors or peers, which can affect the motivation to transfer learning. Therefore, the following hypothesis is tested:

Hypothesis 5: Work environment is positively related to transfer effort-performance expectations.

The relationship between work environment and performance-outcome expectations.

According to Holton (2000), performance-outcome expectations are the extent to which an individual believes that improvements in job performance will lead to outcomes. If an employee believes that attending a training program will lead to a desirable outcome, such as a salary increase, then the motivation to transfer learning will occur (Edwards, 2013).

Indeed, learning transfer is complex and is influenced by different factors both in direct and indirect ways. Many studies (Hawley & Barnard 2005; Bates & Khasawneh, 2005; Burke & Hutchins 2007) show that the work environment is one of the most important factors that can have an impact on the motivation to transfer learning. It is well recognized, for example, that the most influential elements in learning transfer are supervisor support and peer support (Baldwin & Ford, 1988; Noe and Colquitt, 2002; Holton, 2005). The supervisor is the one who controls the outcome expectations and who can provide feedback and reward to maintain learning transfer (Kozlowski & Salas, 1997; Santos & Stuart, 2003). In other words, an employee can transfer the newly learned knowledge and skills to the workplace if there is support from supervisors (Colquitt, et al., 2000b; Wang & Wentling, 2001). Thus, based on the aforementioned findings, the following hypothesis is proposed:

Hypothesis 6: Work environment is positively related to performance-outcome expectations.

Moderation effect

This section describes the moderators used in this research, their roles, and how they affect the relationships. According to Baron and Kenny (1986, p. 1174), a moderator is a qualitative (e.g., sex, race, class) or quantitative (e.g., level of reward) variable that affects the direction and/or strength of the relationship between an independent or predictor variable and a dependent or criterion variable. In this study, two moderating variables were tested (work environment and leadership styles) to determine their impact on the relationship between each of the independent variables (ability and motivation) and the dependent variables (transfer effort-performance expectations and performance-outcome expectations.

In terms of the potential moderation effect of work environment, a lot of studies (Richman-Hirsch, 2001; Hawley & Barnard, 2005; Bates & Khasawneh, 2005; Burke & Hutchins, 2007) claim that work environment is one of the most important factors influencing the process of learning. According to Sinha (2001), a supportive work environment will increase the ability and motivation of an individual to transfer skills learned to the workplace. Work environment was shown to have a direct positive impact on the dependent variable and it was also shown to act as a moderator variable. In the latter case, work environment is used as a moderating variable, in order to accurately examine any interaction effects. In addition, work environment needs to appear in a model on its own but also in a variable that is the product of a certain independent variable and the moderating variable (i.e., Work environment) (Wooldridge, 1991). In addition, work environment is acting as Quasi moderator *(*Sharma et al., 1981).

In terms of leadership styles which was also tested as a moderating variable in this study. The rationale for using leadership styles as moderator was operationalized within the context of 'self' and not in terms of the manner in which leadership style influences others. For example, Lord and Hall (2005) propose that mature leaders are categorized by higher self-awareness and ability to proactively develop the skills of metacognition through process of reflecting on themselves in a proactive manner.

The potential moderation effect of work environment.

Potential moderating effect of work environment on the relationship between ability and transfer effort-performance expectations.

According to Brenner (2004), the ability of an employee to share the skills and knowledge obtained by attending DLPs throughout organisations depends mainly on the work environment of the organisation. The work environment can either encourage or discourage the employees to apply the newly learned skills (Richman-Hirsch, 2001). The application of the skills learned will lead to changes in individual performance (Holton, 2000). Studies (Khasawneh, 2004; Hawley & Barnard 2005; Bates & Khasawneh 2005; Burke & Hutchins 2007) argue that the work environment is an essential factor that influences the process of learning transfer. However, the effect of work environment factors as a moderator has not been examined (Sinha, 2001; Brenner, 2004). The performance of the employees depends mainly on their willingness and ability to

apply their skills on their job (Sinha, 2001). The productivity of the employees if they are supported with a good work environment (Brenner, 2004). Therefore, the following hypothesis is tested:

Hypothesis 7: Work environment moderates the relationship between ability and transfer effort-performance expectations.

Potential moderating effect of work environment on the relationship between ability and performance-outcome expectations.

According to Noe (1986), a trainee will have the ability to apply the newly learned skills if they believe that their effort will result in some type of outcomes, such as a reward. However, if there is no supportive work environment (such as supervisor support), the trainee will not be able to transfer learning (Sørensen, 2017). Because the atmosphere at work does not support development, the trainee will not receive a reward from their supervisors (Avolio & Hannah, 2008). The study of LDPs by Sørensen (2017), considered how others focused on the design and content of the program. This focus neglected the importance of the work environment for the transfer of the skills learned during training program to the workplace. Therefore, the following hypothesis is tested:

Hypothesis 8: Work environment moderates the relationship between ability and performance-outcome expectations.

Potential moderating effect of work environment on the relationship between motivation and transfer effort-performance expectations.

According to Wieland-Handy (2008), motivation directly influences learning. If an individual's motivation is high, then the level of learning transfer will correspondingly improve. A supportive work environment will motivate employees toward higher productivity (Brenner, 2004). This will help organisations to improve efficiency and allow the employees to share their knowledge, ideas and skills. Research has shown that an encouraging work environment from others in organisations will influence the trainees' motivation to apply the skills learned at work (Colquitt et al., 2000; Tracey et al., 1995). In addition, as mentioned by Egan, Yang, and Bartlett (2004)

and Wahlgren (2009), there is a close connection between employees' job satisfaction and motivation. They argued that the more satisfied employees are with their jobs, the more motivated they will be to learn and to transfer the skills learned to workplace. Organisations with a supportive work environment that takes care of their training initiatives will have higher rates of learning transfer (Saks and Burke, 2012). Therefore, the following hypothesis is tested:

Hypothesis 9: Work environment moderates the relationship between motivation and transfer effort-performance expectations.

Potential moderating effect of work environment on the relationship between motivation and performance-outcome expectations.

A supportive work environment in an organisation is instrumental in preparing employees for formal development activities and for accomplishment of the desired learning objectives (Tracey, Hinkin, Tannenbaum, & Mathieu, 2001). According to Hoekstra (2003), a more positive work environment shows stronger operational results. Employees who have participated in a training program will be more motivated to take the new knowledge back to the workplace and to apply the skills learned (John-Paul Hatala & Fleming, 2007).

Stup (2003) argues that an employees' performance depends on a supportive work environment. For example, if employees are doing their job and have work done on time, this will improve the performance and productivity of the employees (Sinha, 2001). In addition, employees will be expected to be rewarded for their performances. A reward system, based on employee's performances, should be implemented in organisations. Also, Stup (2003) declares that there are several factors that affect employees' performance, for example, a supportive work environment, performance expectations, feedback on performance, and the reward system. Therefore, the following hypothesis is tested:

Hypothesis 10: Work environment moderates the relationship between motivation and performance-outcome expectations.

The potential moderating effect of leadership styles

Leaders play a central role in organisations and they have a crucial role in building and sustaining an effective learning atmosphere (Imamoglu et al., 2015). Leaders promote the importance of learning and add new skills and knowledge to the existing ones (Berson et al., 2006). However, different leadership styles have different impacts on learning (Somech, 2006). Scholars have tried to find an answer to the question, 'what is the most appropriate leadership style for the organisations to achieve their goals?' (Tannenbaum & Schmidt, 1973) and this question is still being explored. Leaders have different leadership skills and the different styles are argued to have different impacts on the organisation's success (Caudell, 1994; Burke et al., 2006; Oke et al., 2009). Since this study considers leadership styles to be a reflection of metacognition skills (as argued earlier in this chapter), it is important to examine which leadership style will best enhance the metacognition skills of leaders at a greater extent. According to Lord and Hall (2005), metacognitive skills are particularly important for leaders who already have developed basic leadership skills. The participants of LDPs who have already completed LDPs have different leadership styles, which will motivate them to transfer learning at different levels. Hence, metacognition skills play a crucial role in self-awareness, which is claimed by many scholars (e.g. Gardner, Avolio, Luthans, May, & Walumbwa, 2005) to be foundational to leadership development.

Since this study focuses on transformational, transactional and laissez-fair leadership styles, it is important to know which leadership style strengthens the relationship between ability, motivation, work environment and transfer effort-performance expectations and performance-outcome expectations.

A) Transformational leadership style

The potential moderating effect of a transformational leadership style on the relationship between ability, motivation, work environment and transfer effort-performance expectations and performance-outcome expectations.

The majority of the studies that have investigated the relationship between leadership and performance have focused on the transformational leadership style (Ogbonna & Harris

(2000). According to Ruggieri et al. (2013), transformational leadership is expected to be more effective in enhancing metacognitive skills. The characteristics of transformational leaders ensure that their behaviour encourages personal growth that, in turn, helps individuals to become more aware of their abilities and motivate them to take initiative and apply their knowledge and competences to solve problems (Ruggieri et al., 2013).

In regards to motivation, Wieland-Handy (2008) postulate that if an individual's motivation is high, then the level of learning transfer will correspondingly improve. It is reasonable, therefore, to expect that an individual with a transformational leadership style will be more inclined to have greater support in applying knowledge. Along similar lines, if employees have the ability to apply the skills and knowledge learned to the workplace, then the learning transfer will happen more effectively (Baldwin & Ford (1988). As noted in the study of Dvir et al., (2002), there is evidence that the transformational leadership style tends to be more effective than other leadership styles. Therefore, it is expected that a transformational leadership style will strengthen the relationship between ability, motivation, work environment and transfer effort-performance expectations and performance-outcome expectations. Therefore, the following hypothesis is tested:

H11: Transformational leadership style is expected to positively moderate the relationship between ability, motivation and work environment at a greater extent in relation to transactional style.

B) Transactional leadership styles

The potential moderating effect of transactional leadership style on the relationship between ability, motivation, work environment and transfer effort-performance expectations and performance-outcome expectations.

Transactional Leadership shows behaviours related to constructive and corrective transactions. This leadership style promotes performance and defines expectations (Avolio & Bass, 2004). According to Lowe, Kroeck, and Sivasubramaniam (1996), meta-analyses conducted on transactional and transformational leadership demonstrates that, although both styles are connected positively to performance, the relationship with

transformational leadership is significantly stronger. However, another meta-analysis found that transformational leadership was indeed a more effective style and the contingent reward aspect of transactional leadership is highly effective. Moreover, these two leadership styles tend to be correlated to some extent and have been linked to effective performance (Judge & Piccolo, 2004). A number of studies (Bass, 1997, Jung, 2001, Dvir et al., 2002; Hambley et al. 2007) show that the transformational leadership style is a stronger predictor of performance than is the transactional leadership style. For example, Bass (1997) recommends that highly effective leadership needs to go beyond the reward-punishment exchange that illustrates transactional leadership. Indeed, a strictly reward-punishment leadership style will push managers into being motivated to apply and transfer only those types of knowledge and skills that will allow them to achieve goals and/or avoid punishment. Drawing from the studies of Lord and Hall (2005), Boal and Hooijberg, (2007) and Ruggieri et al., (2013), it may be claimed that a transactional leader can be classified in the novice category as opposed to transformational leaders who may be categorized in the intermediate to 'expert' skills category. The latter categories are characterized by higher self-awareness as reflected by metacognitions abilities. Therefore, the following hypothesis is tested:

H12: Transactional leadership style is expected to positively moderate the relationship between ability, motivation and work environment at a greater extent in relation to Laissez-fair style.

C) Laissez-faire leadership

According to Fiaz et al. (2017), a laissez-faire leader works with whatever structure is put in place without any criticisms or suggestions. In addition, aims and objectives are established only when it is compulsory and required. A laissez-faire leader avoids communication, avoids making decisions, and avoids getting involved when important issues arise (Avolio & Bass, 2004). A laissez-faire leader usually tries to maintain a low profile and not create waves of disturbance (Chaudhry & Javed, 2012). The laissez-faire leadership style is characterized by delays in actions and absence (Sosik & Godshalk, 2000). When compared to transformational and transactional leadership styles, the

laissez-faire leadership style is considered to be the most ineffective (Mathafena, 2007). This type of leader usually gives up on responsibility and lacks confidence in their ability as a leader (Mathafena, 2007). In addition, laissez-faire leaders fail to set goals and have little interest in the work; as a result, productivity will be low.

It is expected that the laissez-faire leadership style will weaken the relationship between ability, motivation, work environment and transfer effort-performance expectations and performance-outcome expectations.

In the light of the above statements, it is expected that leadership styles have an effect on the relationship between ability, motivation, work environment and transfer effort-performance expectations and performance-outcome expectations. Use of the correct leadership style can improve the performance of an organisation (Northouse, 1997; Antonakis & House, 2004).

Chapter 7: RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY (Quantitative)

7.1 Introduction

The study used a mixed method approach, with data collected through an exploratory/qualitative approach, followed by a quantitative phase with data collected through a questionnaire (Figure 3.1). As discussed in Chapter 4, the exploratory phases in this study were divided into two phases (phase (1) and phase (2)). In phase (1), ten participants (senior leaders from Dubai government organisations) were interviewed to answer the first research questions: what are the conceptualisations of effective leadership in Dubai government organisations. To answer the second research question, in phase (2), interviews were conducted with ten training designers and key decision makers. The second question was, what are the factors that have an impact on learning transfer?

As discussed in Chapter 6, the findings of phases (1) and (2) informed phase (3) of the research. Quantitative data collected from the participants who completed LDPS is used to answer the third research question: do leadership styles and work environment moderate the relationship between factors influencing learning transfer (ability and motivation) and specific outcomes, these being transfer effort-performance expectations and performance-outcome expectations.

The focus of the present chapter is to discuss phase (3) that utilized a survey-based quantitative approach, guided by a positivist paradigm. The data was collected through a survey questionnaire that was divided into three sections. Section (A) consisted of five questions to measure specific demographic characteristics of the participants who completed LDPs: level of supervisory position, total years of experience, gender, age, and level of education. Section (B) consisted of four questions relating to participation in any type of leadership development programs between 2012 and 2016. Information about year of attendance, types of LDPs, and main goals for engaging in LDPs, was collected.

Section (C) of the survey comprised of the Learning Transfer System Inventory (LTSI), chosen in this research to measure learning transfer (Holton et al., 2012). The last section (D) of the survey

required the sample to respond to Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) (5X-Short Form), with this questionnaire included to explore the leadership styles of the participants (Avolio & Bass, 2004).

The chapter begins with a description of the questionnaires (LTSI and MLQ) used in the study and is followed by a justification for the choice of questionnaires. This is then followed with a description of the population and the sampling approach used. Finally, this chapter provides details about how the study was conducted and takes into account different issues including access, ethics, reliability and validity.

7.2 Questionnaires

A survey questionnaire is usually more familiar to people than any other research tool (Vogt, 2007). Rowley (2014) suggests that questionnaires are one of the most commonly used means of data collection in social sciences research. Rowley adds that a questionnaire consists of a series of open and closed questions where the participants are invited to give answers without any direct interaction with the investigator. A survey research was ideal for phase (3) to cross-validate the data from phase (1) and phase (2). Specifically, the survey was used to examine the affects that ability, motivation and work environment have on learning transfer, and how this is moderated by leadership styles and work environment.

There are several advantages of this survey method. For example, researchers tend to gather better evidence when they have a good idea of what they want to do with the collected data (Vogt, 2007), questionnaires are less expensive, and the researcher can save time and financial resources (Kumar, 1996). Moreover, a survey using a questionnaire is the best approach for rapid data collection because information can be collected and processed quickly (Rea & Parker, 2005).

The first section of the questionnaire established a demographic profile, while the second section consisted of questions related to LDPs. The LTSI (version 4) and the MLQ (5X-Short Form) were the instruments used for this study. The LTSI was used to identify the factors that influence learning transfer. Permission to use the LTSI was granted by the authors of the LTSI instrument

(see Appendix G, letter of permission). The LTSI was developed and revised by Holton and other researchers (Holton, Bates, Seyler, & Carvalho, 1997; Holton et al., 2000; Bates, Holton, & Hatala, 2012). Permission was also received to reproduce copies of the questionnaire within one year. The MLQ was used to explore the leadership styles of the participants who completed LDPs. The survey was distributed using the online survey tools available on Qualtrics. The participants had the option to choose either the Arabic or the English version of the questionnaire.

The following sections describe the questionnaires used in this study.

7.2.1 Learning Transfer System Inventory (LTSI)

Bates et al. (2012) developed the Learning Transfer System Inventory (LTSI), version (4) in order to measure the factors that affect learning transfer. The initial development of the LTSI was built on the instrument of transfer climate, which was established by Rouiller and Goldstein (1993). Holton et al. (1997) developed the first version of the LTSI and named it the Learning Transfer Questionnaire (LTQ). The instrument consisted of 66 items, 49 of which were taken from Rouiller and Goldstein's (1993) original 63-item transfer climate instrument. In order to measure a construct named 'opportunity to perform' (Ford et al., 1992), seventeen new items were added by Holton et al. (1997).

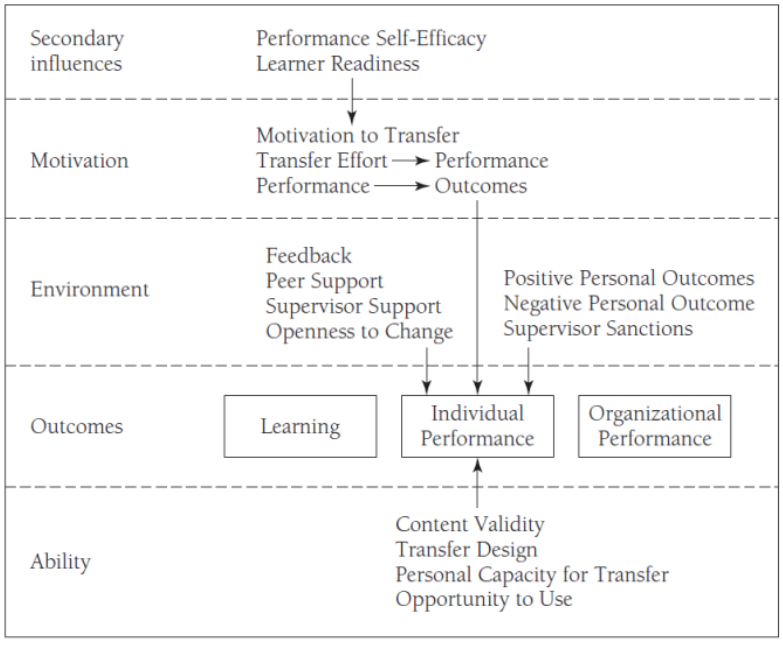
The extended transfer climate instrument of 66 items was tested with 189 operating technicians from four petrochemical manufacturing facilities. Then Holton et al. (2000) added seven more scales to the LTQ to include 16 factors. The new version was named the 'Learning Transfer System Inventory' (LTSI). The 16 constructs in the LTSI consists of 112 items representing a more complete set of factors supposed to affect the transfer of training. The LTSI was divided into two construct areas: 11 constructs containing 76 items (training specific), and five constructs, with 36 items (training general).

Then, another version of the LTSI was developed which only consisted of 89 items. These contain the 68 items taken from the study of Holton et al. (2000) and 21 additional items included to support the reliability of the following scales: personal capacity for transfer, personal

outcome-positive, opportunity to use learning, supervisor/manager sanctions, and feedback/performance coaching.

Later on, another a much shorter version of the LTSI (version 4) was produced by Bates et al. (2012). It consisted of 48 items and a 7-point Likert type scale used in the questionnaire. The main reason for producing this version was to increase the response rate of the respondents. In addition, it is easier-to-use and a more accessible instrument for organisations, training practitioners and scholars (Bates et al., 2012). The present study used the updated version (4) of LTSI, which was also available in the Arabic language (Khasawneh, 2004).

The LTSI framework consists of four sets of factors: ability, motivation, work environment, and secondary influences. As per the LTSI framework, the motivation, ability and work environment factors are expected to directly impact on individual performance, while the secondary influences are perceived to influence motivation and then to affect individual performance. The conceptual framework of the LTSI as developed by Holton et al. (2000) is shown in Figure (7.1).



Source: Holton, Bates, & Ruona (2000, p. 239).

Figure 7.1: The Conceptual Framework of LTSI

The Learning Transfer System Inventory (LTSI) model recognizes that the primary outcomes of training are learning, individual performance, and organisational performance. Within the LTSI model, as show in Figure (7.1), three factors are believed to be the main variables that influence the transfer process from the environment of training to the workplace. These factors are the ability of trainees to use knowledge, skills and abilities (KSAs) at the workplace, the motivation to use KSAs, and the work environment, which supports the use of KSAs. The following section will talk about the main variables in detail:

Ability

Ability factors refer to those elements that allow trainees to transfer learning effectively and they exist in the training and work environment (Holton et al., 2000). Ability factors consist of different elements as mentioned in the following section.

Content validity

Content validity is one of the elements of the ability factors which addresses the extent to which trainees perceive that the skills and knowledge learned in training are similar to what individuals need to use at workplace (Holton et al., 2000). For example, study by Bates et al. (2000), found that "the higher the perceived relevance and utility of training program content the more highly motivated they will be to master that content" (p. 28).

Transfer of design

Transfer of design is defined by Holton et al. (2000) as "the degree to which training has been designed and delivered to give trainees the ability to transfer learning to the job" (p. 334). According to Khasawneh (2004), the element of transfer design is important for process of transfer of learning because it improve the ability of trainees to retain and use the skills learned at the workplace.

Opportunity to use

The opportunity to use refers to the opportunity to apply the skills learned during the training program to the workplace (Baldwin & Ford, 1988). According to Ford and Quinones (1992), the literature displays that the lack of chances to apply the skills learned is linked to performance

decrements (Ford & Quinones, 1992). If trainees are not permitted to use the skills learned then their learning transfer will be ineffective (Noe & Ford, 1992).

Personal capacity for transfer

Personal capacity for transfer refers to the "extent to which individuals have the time, energy, and mental space in their work life to make changes required to transfer learning to the job" (Holton et al., 2000, p. 334). According to Khasawneh (2004), it is important for trainees to have some space at the workplace to apply the skills learned on their job.

Motivation

Motivation to transfer refers to the intensity, direction, and persistence of effort to learn new skills from training prgrams and apply them on the job (Salas & Cannon-Bowers, 2001). Some scholars (Baldwin & ford, 1988; Ford & Quinones, 1992; Broad & Newstrom, 1992; Roe, 1997; Kozlowski & Salas, 1997; Lunenburg, 2011) argue that trainees' motivation to transfer learning and apply the skills learned at the workplace is essential for the effectiveness of any training program.

Work environment

Most organisations attempt to capitalize on the initiatives of training in order to move their strategic agendas forward (Srimannarayana, 2016). These initiatives require the participants in training to take the skills learned back to the workplace and to apply what they have learned on the job (John-Paul, Hatala & Fleming, 2007). However, one of the major factors that affect application of learning to the workplace is the work environment (Baldwin & Ford, 1988; Holton et al. 2000; Pham et al., 2012; Dirani, 2017). Research (Ford & Quinones, 1992; Quinones & Ford, 1995; Hawley & Barnard, 2005; Bates & Khasawneh, 2005; Burke & Hutchins, 2007) shows that the work environment is one of the important factors that influence the process of learning transfer. The Bates et al. (2012), LTSI conceptual model, has the work environment including different factors such as supervisory or peer support, and opportunities to perform learned behaviours on the job (p. 64).

Supervisory support

The importance of the role of a supervisor in training transfer has been recognized by many scholars, and has been categorized as the most influential variable (Xiao, 1996) because "most employees work hard to determine exactly what their boss expects and then strive to meet those expectations" (Georgenson, 1982, p. 75). In addition, the support of supervisors can be classified as either non-supportive or supportive. The definition used in the LTSI model for supervisor support is the extent to which supervisors-managers support and reinforce use of training on the job (Holton et al., 2000). According to Khasawneh (2004), supervisors play an important role in organisation as they can reinforce the use of learning at the workplace through appropriate rewards and prompt feedback. Khasawneh adds that the atmosphere of the organisation is exposed to new ideas and invests in change that may simplify the process of transfer.

Peer support

Peer support is defined by Holton et al. (2000) as the degree to which peers reinforce and support use of learning at the workplace.

Openness to change

Openness to change refers to the extent to which trainees perceive their organisation and their work group, in particular, to be open to new ideas, and support and invest in change (Donovan, Hannigan, & Crowe, 2001).

Personal outcomes positive

This is the degree to which the application of training on the job results in some types of outcomes that are positive for the individuals (Holton et al., 2000).

Personal outcomes negative

This is the extent to which an individual believes that using the newly skills learned in training programs will lead to negative outcomes (Holton et al., 2000).

Supervisor sanctions

This is the extent to which an individual perceives negative reactions from supervisors when using the knowledge learned on the job (Holton et al., 2000).

Secondary influences

The elements, ability, motivation and work environment, are perceived as 'primary transfer influences' because they directly impact on the individual transfer performance. Learner readiness is a construct defined by Bass and Vaughn (1966) to incorporate individual attributes such as experiential background, maturation, and motivation level that either encourage or discourage learning. This definition suggests that a realistic training previews should be provided for the trainees (Hicks & Klimoski, 1987). For example, information should be shared prior to attending training about the materials and approaches used in training (Tannenbaum & Yukl, 1992). As well, a trainee should be involved in the process of needs assessment and the design of the training program (Magjuka & Baldwin, 1991). This construct is mainly focused on the degree to which a trainee is mentally ready to attend a training program. According to Magjuka and Baldwin (1991), trainees usually have higher intentions to use the skills learned at the workplace when they receive information about the training program prior to their participation. The level of the trainees' confidence (self-efficacy beliefs) to use the skills learned is also considered an essential influence on transfer-related motivation (Khasawneh, 2004). One of the key constructs of the social learning theory is self-efficacy which was developed by Bandura (1977) that has been revealed to be positively connected to the training outcomes, such as performance (Tannenbaum & Yukl, 1992; Saks, 1995; Tracey et al., 2001; Salas & Cannon-Bowers, 2001).

7.2.2 Justification for choosing the LTSI

The reasons for selecting the LTSI framework to measure the factors that impact on learning transfer are as follows:

The LTSI can be used as an evaluative tool after training programs to get additional information about the effectiveness of the program (Bates, Holton, Hatala, 2012). According to Martineau (2004), organisations may experience rapid change in their leadership needs. Despite its obvious

significance, there is evidence that evaluation of the effectiveness of training programs in organisations is usually missing or inconsistent (Fullard, 2006). As leadership development becomes prevalent around the world, it is important to understand the expectations of attending LDPs, whether the needs of participants have been met and whether the LDP has achieved its stated objectives (Gentry et al., 2014).

Studies in leadership development programs have used the LTSI to measure the learning transfer (Hutchins et al., 2013; Gilpin-Jackson & Bushe, 2007; Kirwan & Birchall 2006; Austin et al., 2006). According to Hutchins et al. (2013), the LTSI can be one of the tools to measure the learning transfer after completing LDPs. Khasawneh (2004) mentions that the LTSI can be used in multiple ways to improve learning transfer in organisations. For example, it can be used as an assessment tool to identify skills and knowledge required by trainers and supervisors to support learning transfer. In particular, the LTSI can be used to identify the factors that contribute to the success of learning transfer (Holton et al., 2000) and can recognize the potential weaknesses in a certain work setting that have contributed to the failure of training (Khasawneh, 2004).

The LTSI model has been used in 17 countries and utilized 14 different language versions. The main objective in the ongoing development of the LTSI has been to provide practitioners and researchers with an instrument that consists of a core set of rigorously developed and validated transfer system scales that reflect those elements critical to promote effective learning transfer on the job. Furthermore, the LTSI can be used as a diagnostic tool before training to determine unknown and possible transfer problems and to recognize leverage points for change (Holton et al., 2000).

The LTSI has been utilized different languages and has been used in two different cultural contexts. For example, it has been used in different countries such as Thailand (Yamnill, 2001) and Taiwan (Chen, 2003). The first study to develop an equivalent Arabic version of LTSI by using cross-cultural translation techniques was by Khasawneh (2004). The Arabic version was developed by Khasawneh to be used in Jordan and other Arabic countries. According to Khasawneh (2004), the validation of the LTSI in Jordan offers organisations in the Middle East with an instrument that can improve the effectiveness of training by identifying the variables that influence the transfer of learning from the training environment to the work environment.

As well, the LTSI was selected for this study because it is a theoretically and psychometrically sound instrument that reveals evidence of cross-cultural factor validity. The instrument has been well tested with strong evidence of construct validity (Bookter, 1999; Holton et al., 2000), and initial evidence of criterion validity (Holton et al., 2003; Bates, Holton, Seyler, & Carvalho, 2000; Khasawneh, 2004). Finally, LTIS has good cross-cultural validity (Yamnill, 2001; Chen, 2003; Khasawneh, 2004).

The current study used the modified LTSI version 4, which is a shorter version produced by Bates et al., (2012). It consists of 48 items, while the previous version consisted of 89 items. The main reason for using the LTSI (Version 4) for this study is that the shorter version improves acceptance by the respondents. In addition, it is an easier to use, and more accessible instrument, for organisations, training practitioners and scholars. Moreover, the LTSI has been tested with more than 5000 subjects in the United States. It has shown evidence of reliability, construct validity, convergent validity, criterion validity and divergent validity (Bates, 1997; Seyler, Holton, Bates, Burnett, & Carvalho, 1998; Bookter, 1999; Bates, Holton, Seyler, & Carvalho, 2000; Holton, Bates, & Ruona, 2000). To date, the LTSI that was developed by Holton and Bates (2002) is the only reliable and valid instrument that measures a comprehensive set of learning transfers. The LTSI has been used extensively across different organisations and training programs, and has been verified to be reliable and valid in diagnosing learning transfer.

Finally, most of the findings from qualitative phases (1) and (2) support the applicability of the LTSI framework. For example, the results present different factors that impact on learning transfer such as work environment that includes lack of supervisory support/peers support, and resistance to change/openness to change. Most of the participants agreed that the work environment is one of the major factors that influence learning transfer. As well, the content and the design of the leadership development programs was one of the factors discussed. The participant mentioned the importance of designing the program and choosing topics and content for the programs that will help the trainees apply the knowledge learned in training to their workplace. Furthermore, the results refer to motivation factor because some employees are not motivated to apply the skills learned at the workplace because of their resistance to change and lack of support from their supervisors. The LTSI questionnaire was the best choice for answering

the research questions in the current study as it takes consideration of the factors discussed above and informed the choice of LTSI questionnaire for measuring learning transfer quantitatively.

7.2.3 Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ)

The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (5X-Short Form) was developed by Avolio and Bass (2004). The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) (5X-Short Form) is used to measure the full range of leadership styles, which includes transformational leadership, transactional leadership and laissez-faire leadership (Avolio, et al., 1999). According to Avolio and Bass (2004), transformational leadership is defined as an influencing process, in which a leader transforms and inspires followers to accomplish beyond expectations while exceeding self-interest for the good of the organisation (Avolio et al., 2009). Transactional leadership is about behaviours related with to constructive and corrective transactions. This style promotes performance and defines expectations (Avolio & Bass, 2004). Laissez-faire leadership avoids making decisions and avoids getting involved when important issues arise (Avolio & Bass, 2004).

The questionnaire has four dimensions on leadership: individualised consideration, idealised influence, intellectual stimulation and inspirational motivation. The MLQ questionnaire is available in the form of 45 items. Items 1-36 measure the dominant leadership style and items 37-45 measure effectiveness, extra effort and satisfaction (Avolio & Bass 2004). Furthermore, the instrument uses a five-point scale to measure the leadership styles of the participants who completed LDPs in Dubai government organisations. The questionnaire is published and distributed by Mind Garden and is available in an Arabic version. The MLQ has also been translated into Portuguese, Spanish, French, Italian, Swedish, Norwegian, Turkish, Hebrew, Chinese, Thai, and Korean. This shows how widely the MLQ has been used to show its external validity.

7.2.4 Justification for using the MLQ for this study:

The MLQ (5X-Short Form) was selected for this study to measure the dominant leadership style of the employees who completed LDPs in Dubai government organisations. As discussed in Chapter 5, the results of the exploratory phases show that transformational leadership is

considered one of the most effective leadership styles among the leaders at Dubai government organisations. Still, further empirical investigation was required to determine the moderating effect of leadership style. The MLQ is able to examine the moderating effect leadership styles have on the relationship between factors of ability, motivation and work environment affect learning transfer and transfer effort-performance expectations and performance-outcome expectations.

In addition, the MLQ instrument was used in this study because it is very comprehensive in the area of leadership, and its reliability and validity as an instrument have been proven (Muenjohn & Armstrong, 2008). Many scholars (Gardner & Stough, 2001; Limsila & Ogulana, 2008; Muenjohn, 2009) have used the MLQ (5X-Short Form) to measure leadership style and researchers have used this instrument in different countries. In this study, the MLQ (5X-Short Form) was selected because it is a short, comprehensive survey with 45 items. It can be completed within 15 minutes. The MLQ (5X-Short Form) instrument is considered to be the best-validated measure of transactional and transformational leadership (Ozaralli, 2003). According to Avolio and Bass (2004), best leaders usually use a full range of leadership models, transactional leadership, transformational leadership, and Laissez-Faire Leadership, as appropriate to the situation. Therefore, the MLQ (5X-Short Form) was deemed a suitable instrument for this study to measure the dominant leadership style among leaders at Dubai government organisations.

Since the questionnaire was answered by participants who had completed LDPs, the MLQ can examine the influence of the leadership styles of the participants who completed LDPS and can determine the effect of leadership style on the relationship between the factors that impact on learning transfer and transfer effort-performance expectations and performance-outcome expectations.

7.3 Wording and instrument translation process

Ticehurst and Veal (2000) argue that a good questionnaire should avoid ambiguity, jargon, leading questions and multi-purpose questions. Wording should be straightforward, simple and avoid highly technical words or phrases (Rea & Parker, 2005). For the present study, both questionnaires, the LTSI and the MLQ, were available in Arabic and English languages.

However, a rigorous English-to-Arabic translation process was used that involved an iterative process of backward translation, forward translation, and assessment for clarity and correctness. The main purpose of the translation process was to make sure that the Arabic version of the questionnaire was equivalent in meaning to the original English versions. There was no difference in the LTSI questionnaire but the MLQ had to be improved to be equivalent to the English version. This process was essential because the objective of the researcher was to have equivalent translation not an identical word-by-word translation (Rea & Parker, 2005).

7.4 Population and sampling

The target population of this research was the employees in Dubai government organisations. The inclusion criteria were that participants should have completed LDPs during the period from 2012 until 2016. Hence, purposive sampling was chosen for this research because focusing on individuals with particular characteristics (in this case, participant will have better potential to assist with the relevant study (Palys, 2008).

7.5 Data collection

The researcher commenced data collection in December 2016. The targeted group was the participants in Dubai government organisations who had completed LDPs. The participants in the survey were those who had completed a leadership development program (of up to six months) between 2012 and 2016. There were two Dubai government organisations who were in charge of designing LDPs for employees in Dubai Government organisations, these being, Mohammed bin Rashid School of Government and Mohammed Bin Rashid Centre for Leadership Development. The researcher sent an official letter to these two organisations in charge of LDPs in order to seek their participation in the research study. Once approval had been received, a link that explained the research project was sent to them.

To ensure confidentiality, the Human Resources (HR) department was in charge and responsible for sending the link to potential participants. The survey was anonymous and completion of the online questionnaire was marked as consent to participate. The participants were also informed that the survey could be completed at their place of work (or at any convenient location), at a time convenient to them. In addition, all employees were informed that the survey would be used

for research purposes only. The MLQ survey takes about 15 minutes to complete while the LTSI takes about 20 minutes. The completion time for the whole survey was roughly 35 minutes.

7.6 Ethics

The researcher ensured that the rights of the respondents were protected. The participants were informed that participation in the study was voluntary and that they could withdraw their participation from the study at any time. The researcher ensured confidentiality of the information collected with an affirmation that the participants would not be identified during any stage of the study. In addition, responses to the survey were confidential and use of the data was limited to the researcher. In order to avoid a violation of employees' privacy, the questionnaire was circulated by the organisations in charge for designing LDPs. The researcher sent the link of the online survey to the organisations that were then in charge of sending the link to the participants. The collected data was stored in a secured place as required by the University of Wollongong in Dubai.

7.8 Data analysis

The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) version 23.0 was used for analysis of the survey data (Manning & Munro, 2007). The last step of the study was to interpret the results in the light of the research questions and to determine if the hypotheses are supported or rejected (Creswell, 2014). Also, the interpreted results should suggest why or why not the findings were significant, drawing on past literature review. The following steps were used for the data analysis:

Descriptive analysis

Descriptive statistics are statistical methods that can accurately summarise the variables that are used in a study (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Appropriate descriptive statistics measures were used to summarize the variables that were used in this study, depending on whether these were quantitative (i.e. ordinal) or qualitative (categorical). For instance, frequency tables were used to describe variables such as the gender of respondents and the number in top, middle or lower management positions (i.e., level of hierarchy). Descriptive statistics analysis allows the reader to

gain an initial feel of the data, but also explores whether any errors exist in the dataset (Dewberry, 2004). The researcher used the descriptive statistics before adopting advanced analysis, such as regression analysis.

Factor analysis

Factor analysis is a multivariate statistical technique used to observe the intercorrelations between a large set of variables, and then to find a smaller number of constructs that still capture those relationships (Ary et al., 1996; Benson & Nasser, 1998). The main purpose of factor analysis is to summarise data contained over a large number of variables into a smaller number of factors (Zikmund, 2000) and to help researchers simplify information (Hair et al., 2000). The factor analysis test can be either exploratory factor analysis (EFA) or confirmatory factor analysis (CFA).

Exploratory factor analysis (EFA) is referred to as analysis that explains potential relationships in only the most general form and then permits the multivariate techniques to estimate relationships (Hair et al., 1998). Moreover, EFA provides a procedure to determine an appropriate number of factors and the pattern of factor loadings from the data. With confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), the researcher is required to identify a specific number of factors (Fabrigar et al., 1999).

In this study, exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was performed. Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was not used in the study as it is much more related to studies that uses structural equation modeling (SEM) (Harrington, 2009).The main purpose for using the exploratory factor analysis (EFA) is to "reduce the number of dimensions necessary to describe the relationships among the variables" (Gardner, 2001, p. 243). The EFA approach was preferred for use with the LTSI instrument as in other cross-cultural validation studies (Chen, Holton, & Bates, 2005; Bates, Kauffeld, & Holton, 2007; Khasawneh, Bates & Holton, 2006). The present study utilized multiple regressions to investigate the relationships described at the beginning of this chapter.

Reliability and validity

According to Hair et al., (2010), to ensure the credibility of the results, a researcher must not ignore the issues of reliability and validity. A number of steps were taken to ensure reliability and

validity. First, the data was scanned by using appropriate statistical methods to make sure that no error existed and that all variables were coded correctly. Before carrying out any statistical analysis appropriate variables are used to measure the concepts of interest and to ensure reliability and construct validity. This was mainly achieved by measuring the variables of interest in ways that have been used before in previous studies and by making sure that these variables went through rigorous testing to ensure reliability and validity. To examine the internal consistency of the measure, Cronbach's coefficient alpha values were used (Hinton et al., 2004; Field, 2009).

Regression analysis

Multiple regression (MR) analysis was used to examine the factors influencing learning transfer. According to Tabachnick and Fidell (2007), multiple regression analysis can be used to determine how well a number of independent variables predict the outcome of a criterion variable. Regression was chosen given that one of the main aims of the study is to uncover the relationship between some of respondents' attributes, factors affecting learning transfer, and leadership styles that characterize them, and the two performance outcomes. The advantage of using regression analysis is that it allows the researcher to explore the variables that have a significant (different from zero) effect on the dependent variable (transfer effort-performance expectations and performance-outcome expectations) while controlling for respondents' additional characteristics (education, experience, managerial position). Regression analysis therefore allows isolation of the effect that each variable of interest has on the dependent variable. Moreover, by using regression analysis, the researcher was able to understand (quantitatively) which variable has the greatest effect on transfer effort-performance expectations and performance-outcome expectations, and how well the variables of interest explain differences in performance.

An additional aim of the study was to investigate how the relationship between the three different leadership styles and transfer effort-performance expectations and performance-outcome expectations changes depending on the attributes that respondents possess and the various other antecedent factors influencing learning transfer. Again, regression is an appropriate tool to use in because it allows the exploration and identification of contingent relationships between the

independent variables, via the construction of moderating variables, again after controlling for the effect of respondents' remaining characteristics.

For example, given that the researcher wants to investigate how the relationship between the transformational leadership style and transfer effort-performance expectations and performance-outcome expectations changes, depending on the perceived level of ability, a new variable was developed by interacting those two variables. This new variable (moderator) was included in the model together with the two individual variables (transformational leadership style and ability). This allowed the researcher to investigate the effect of the moderating variable after the effect that these two variables have individually been taken into account. Finally, regression allows the results regarding the direct and moderating relationship between variables to be generalised to the wider population of respondents.

In conclusion, this chapter provides an overview of the research design and methodology used to answer the key research questions. Drawing on a positivist paradigm, the chapter discusses the quantitative approach utilised in Phase 3 (as informed by phases (1) and (2)), with specific reference to the LTSI and MLQ measures that were used. The chapter ends with a justification for the use of multiple regression analyses to examine the percentage of variance contributed by each of the independent variables, on learning transfer, and the moderating impact of leadership styles and work environment factors on the relationship between antecedent and outcome variables.

Chapter 8: ANALYSIS AND RESULTS (Quantitative)

8.1 Chapter overview

The purpose of this chapter is to present the analysis for the quantitative part of the study. A total of 400 questionnaires were distributed online to the participants from Dubai government organisations employees who had completed leadership development programs (LDPs). All participants were Emarati from Dubai government organisations. A total of 201 complete surveys were collected and the response rate was 50%.

The analysis has three aims. The first is to investigate the direct relationship that exists between respondents' perceptions of their ability, motivation and work environment and transfer effort-performance expectations and performance outcome expectations. Secondly, to consider the relationship that exists between transfer effort-performance expectations, performance outcome expectations, and three leadership styles. Thirdly, to investigate how work environment and the three distinct leadership styles moderate (change) how ability and motivation are linked to transfer effort-performance expectations and performance outcome expectations.

Data was obtained from the Learning Transfer System Inventory (LTSI) and from the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (5X-Short Form).

8.2 Descriptive statistics

To provide an understanding of respondents' characteristics, a descriptive statistics analysis was carried out that covered the respondents demographic characteristics, such as gender and age, their educational background, working experience, and information regarding the number of respondents who had attended different types of leadership development program.

8.2.1 Demographic data

Gender and age

Gender was equally represented; 52.7% were female and 47.3% were male. Most of the respondents (46.8%) were in the 30-39 years old age group, 27% in the 40-44 years old group, 16.4% were 21-29 years old, and 9.8% were more than 45 years old.

Education and experience

The majority of respondents (53.7%) was educated up to a degree level, while 26.5% held a postgraduate degree. Some (5.9%) of the respondents had a higher diploma and 6.1% were educated to the level of diploma. Finally, high school graduates were 7.6% of the total sample. Middle management constituted 45.3% of all respondents, and 29.4% were at the lower (first) level of management. Top management made up 17.4% of the sample and non-managerial personnel 7.8%.

Level of supervisory position

Most (39.2%) of the respondents had 15 and above years of experience, 35.3% had between 10 and 14 years of experience and 20.1% had between 5 and 9 years of experience. Finally, only 5.4 % of the respondents had a relatively short tenure with 1- 4 years of experience.

LDP types

The respondents were asked to report which LDPs they attended. An equal percentage (36.5%) of participants attended either customized LDPs or MBRSG programs, while 27% attended MBCLD programs.

8.3 Correlations

The bivariate correlation table (Table 8.1) below shows that a quite strong positive correlation exists between transfer effort-performance expectations and performance-outcome expectations and perceived ability, motivation and work environment. Correlations fluctuate between 0.469 and 0.687. This shows that as the managers' perceptions regarding their ability, motivation, and work environment increases, so do their perceptions regarding transfer effort performance expectations and performance outcome expectations. In regards to the associations between the three types of leadership styles and the transfer effort performance expectations and performance

outcome expectations, it was found that although the transformational and transactional leadership styles were moderately correlated with transfer effort performance expectations and performance outcome expectations, (correlations ranging between 0.261 and 0.481, the laissez-faire leadership style was only weakly related to performance outcomes expectations). Finally, although a few strong correlations appeared to exist between the explanatory variables themselves, the variance inflation factor (VIF) statistics of the regressions models that follow show no issues related to multicollinearity.

Table 8.1: Bivariate correlations table

	Transfer Effort-Performance Expectations	Performance-outcome Expectations	Ability	Motivation	Work Environment	Transformational Leadership	Transactional Leadership	Laissez-faire Leadership
Transfer Effort-Performance Expectations	1							
Performance-outcome Expectations	.708**	1						
Ability	.641**	.522**	1					
Motivation	.687**	.490**	.750**	1				
Work Environment	.526**	.469**	.727**	.591**	1			
Transformational Leadership	.481**	.311**	.441**	.481**	.382**	1		
Transactional Leadership	.327**	.261**	.309**	.371**	.205**	.660**	1	
Laissez-faire Leadership	-.072	.074	.013	-.070	.011	-.218**	-.041	1

8.4 Regression models

Two types of regression models were developed, one having transfer effort-performance expectations as the dependent variable and a second that investigates the determinants of performance outcome expectations.

All models included the main variables under investigation: respondents' perception of ability, motivation and the work environment, and the three leadership styles that the study focuses on (transformational, transactional and laissez-faire).

All models incorporated a range of control variables that capture different aspects of respondents' characteristics and demographic profile. In terms of demographic characteristics, the models controlled for (1) the gender of respondents (measured as a dummy variable where 1 is male and 0 is female), (2) their age (split into four categorical variables - more than 45 years old, between 40 and 44, between 30 and 39, and younger than 30). The latter was left out of the models to serve as the base category.

In terms of qualifications and work experience, the models controlled for respondents' level of managerial responsibility (measured as three categorical variables: top management, middle management and low – with the latter removed from the models to serve as the base category), years of working experience (three categorical variables: 15 years or more, between 10 and 14 years and less than 10 years – the latter left out to serve as the base category), and the education of respondents (categorical variable of whether firms were educated up to postgraduate level, degree level, or below a degree level).

Finally, all models controlled for the type of leadership development program that respondents attended (MBRSG, MBRCLD or any other, with the last two serving as the base category).

Given that the study was interested in the relationship between (1) respondents' perceptions regarding their ability, motivation, and work environment, (2) the three different leadership styles and transfer effort-performance expectations and performance outcome expectations, and (3) the moderating effect that work environment and the leadership styles have on the relationship between ability, motivation and transfer effort-performance expectations and performance outcome expectations, two different types of models were estimated for the transfer effort-performance expectations and performance outcome expectations. The first

model included all independent variables together with the controls, and the second one investigated each one of the moderating relationships separately. This avoided issues associated with multicollinearity that can emerge if more than two moderating relationships are considered together. The models that considered moderating relationships included the moderating variable together with the two independent variables from which the moderating variable is developed.

8.4.1 Transfer effort-performance expectations

In regard to the effect that the three leadership styles and the respondents' ability, motivation and their work environment have on transfer effort performance expectations, Results from the basic ordinary least squares (OLS) regression model show that although respondents' motivation and ability have a significant effect (at the 1 and 10 % levels of significance respectively), work environment does not have a significant effect. Of the three leadership styles, only the transformational style appears to directly affect transfer effort performance expectations (at the 5 % level of significance). The standardised coefficients also show that motivation has a significant effect on transfer effort performance expectations followed by transformational leadership. The model is quite strong as it explains 51% of the variability in the dependent variable. Nevertheless, the control variables do not appear to have a significant effect on transfer-effort performance expectations, and this is consistent across the models.

Table 8.2: Transfer effort-performance expectations

VARIABLES	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4	Model 5	Model 6
(Constant)	.099	.004	.040	.081	.113	.114
Ability	.171*	.191**	.177*	.176*	.167*	.168*
Motivation	.445***	.467***	.471***	.443***	.447***	.449***
Work Environment	.093	.072	.079	.087	.097	.096
Transformational Leadership	.193**	.190**	.188**	.211**	.178**	.180**
Transactional Leadership	-.069	-.054	-.059	-.069	-.069	-.070
Laissez-faire Leadership	-.033	-.039	-.038	-.029	-.036	-.035
Top Management	.112	.080	.077	.119	.109	.100
Middle Management	.021	-.020	-.001	.024	.017	.015
Age 45 plus	.226	.257	.292	.225	.226	.227
Age 40 to 44	-.228	-.148	-.139	-.230	-.225	-.234
Age 30 to 39	-.111	-.036	-.026	-.110	-.110	-.119
Gender	-.062	-.041	-.065	-.066	-.058	-.058
Experience 15 plus years	.029	.016	.006	.038	.022	.034
Experience 10 to 14 years	-.045	-.090	-.087	-.042	-.048	-.039
Postgrad	.044	.039	.035	.036	.047	.051
MBRSG	.002	-.009	-.002	.013	-.006	-.004
Work environment x ability		.111**				
Work environment x motivation			0.064			
Transformational x ability				0.026		
Transformational x motivation					-0.018	
Transformational x working						-0.025

environment						
Adjusted R square	51.1%	52.2%	51.3%	51%	51%	51%

Note: *** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1

Table 8.3: Transfer effort-performance expectations

VARIABLES	Model 7	Model 8	Model 9	Model 10	Model 11	Model 12
(Constant)	.104	.115	.119	.101	.095	.099
Ability	.170*	.166*	.163*	.160*	.168*	.170*
Motivation	.444***	.445***	.446***	.450***	.447***	.446***
Work Environment	.094	.096	.104	.104	.099	.096
Transformational Leadership	.191**	.182**	**.173	**.192	.193**	.193**
Transactional Leadership	-.070	-.070	-.077	-.071	-.071	-.070
Laissez-faire Leadership	-.034	-.036	-.041	-.033	-.031	-.033
Top Management	.110	.112	.105	.114	.102	.116
Middle Management	.021	.022	.023	.013	.008	.021
Age 45 plus	.226	.227	.228	.226	.223	.220
Age 40 to 44	-.228	-.224	-.240	-.237	-.235	-.232
Age 30 to 39	-.112	-.110	-.120	-.109	-.103	-.112
Gender	-.062	-.061	-.059	-.065	-.060	-.062
Experience 15 plus years	.026	.016	.023	.035	.039	.030
Experience 10 to 14 years	-.046	-.053	-.044	-.038	-.037	-.044
Postgrad	.045	.044	.054	.043	.047	.044
MBRSG	.000	-.005	-.005	.002	.000	.002
Transactional x ability	-.006					
Transactional x motivation		-.021				
Transactional x working environment			-.062			
Laissez-faire x ability				-.038		
Laissez-faire x motivation					-.029	
Laissez-faire x working environment						-.010
Adjusted R square	51%	51%	51.2%	51%	51%	51%

Note: *** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1

In order to test whether work environment moderates (further increases) the effect that managers' perceived ability and motivation have on transfer effort performance expectations, two further OLS models (models 2 and 3 in table 8.2) were estimated by adding the two interaction variables separately in each. These interaction variables were developed by interacting motivation and ability with the work environment variable. Results show that although managers with higher levels of perceived ability perform even better within a supportive environment (with the moderating variable being significant at the 5 % level), the effect that motivation has on transfer effort performance expectations is not further influenced by the conditions of the work environment.

Work environment was shown to have a direct positive impact on the dependent variable and it was shown to act as a moderator variable between ability, motivation, work environment and transfer effort-performance expectations and performance-outcome expectations. In the latter case, work environment is used as a moderating variable, in order to accurately examine any interaction effects. Work environment needs to appear in a model on its own but

also in a variable that is the product of a certain independent variable and the moderating variable (i.e., Work environment) (Wooldridge, 1991).

In regards to the interaction (any possible moderating effects) between the different leadership styles and the variables capturing perceived ability, motivation and work environment, the nine remaining models in tables 8.2 and 8.3 (Models 4 to 12 show that having a transformational, transactional or laissez-faire style in an organisation does not further increase (or decrease) the effect that managers' motivation, ability and the organisation's work environment has on transfer effort performance expectations. These moderating effects were estimated by interacting the three leadership styles with each of the variables capturing ability, motivation and work environment. For example, to investigate whether transformational leadership moderates respondents' perceived ability, a new variable was created by multiplying (for each respondent/observation) the score of transformational leadership with that of perceived ability.

8.4.2 Performance outcome expectations

In regards to performance outcome expectations the same regression models were estimated as for the case of transfer effort performance expectations. The basic model (model 1 table 8.4) (without any moderating effects) shows that ability, work environment and motivation all have a positive and significant effect on performance outcome expectations (the first two at the 10% significance level and the latter at the 5% significance level). None of the three leadership styles appears to directly affect performance outcome expectations. The model explains 28% of the variability in performance outcome expectations. The standardised coefficients show that motivation has the greatest effect, followed by ability and work environment. In regard to the control variables, none of the respondents' characteristics appeared to have a significant effect.

The two models (models 2 and 3, table 8.4) show that work environment, as is for the case of transfer effort performance expectations, positively moderates the relationship between ability and performance outcome expectations. This means that the effect that ability has on performance outcome expectations further increases if the organisation has a supporting work environment. On the other hand, a supportive work environment does not increase the outcome performance expectations of more motivated managers.

Table 8.4: Performance outcome expectations

VARIABLES	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4	Model 5	Model 6
(Constant)	.126	.036	.078	.092	.150	.087
Ability	.191*	.210*	.196*	.201*	.184*	.200*
Motivation	.208**	.229**	.229**	.204**	.213**	.196**
Work Environment	.180*	.160*	.170*	.169*	.189*	.171*
Transformational Leadership	.015	.013	.012	.051	-.011	.050
Transactional Leadership	.076	.090	.084	.076	.076	.080
Laissez-faire Leadership	.074	.069	.071	.082	.069	.079
Top Management	.075	.044	.047	.088	.070	.107
Middle Management	-.052	-.090	-.069	-.045	-.060	-.036
Age 45 plus	-.267	-.238	-.214	-.269	-.267	-.271
Age 40 to 44	-.353	-.277	-.282	-.358	-.347	-.337
Age 30 to 39	-.144	-.074	-.076	-.142	-.142	-.123
Gender	-.069	-.049	-.071	-.077	-.062	-.079
Experience 15 plus years	.094	.082	.076	.112	.082	.080
Experience 10 to 14 years	-.087	-.130	-.121	-.081	-.092	-.103
Postgrad	.156	.152	.149	.142	.163	.136
MBRSG	.131	.121	.128	.151	.116	.150
Work environment x ability		.105*				
Work environment x motivation			.051			
Transformational x ability				.050		
Transformational x motivation					-.033	
Transformational x working environment						.070
Adjusted R square	28.2%	29%	28%	28.1%	28%	28.2%

Note: *** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1

Table 8.5 Performance outcome expectations

VARIABLES	Model 7	Model 8	Model 9	Model 10	Model 11	Model 12
(Constant)	.192	.207	.165	.129	.114	.126
Ability	.173	.166	.175	.166	.184	.180
Motivation	.206**	.210**	.210**	.221**	.214**	.218**
Work Environment	.195**	.200**	.203**	.205**	.197**	.213**
Transformational Leadership	-.017	-.039	-.023	.014	.017	.017
Transactional Leadership	.058	.066	.060	.070	.070	.061
Laissez-faire Leadership	.061	.057	.059	.076	.081	.080
Top Management	.055	.078	.062	.080	.048	.113
Middle Management	-.046	-.043	-.048	-.070	-.085	-.045
Age 45 plus	-.271	-.259	-.263	-.267	-.274	-.322
Age 40 to 44	-.365	-.335	-.377	-.375	-.372	-.399
Age 30 to 39	-.153	-.135	-.162	-.138	-.121	-.148
Gender	-.071	-.065	-.062	-.077	-.065	-.067
Experience 15 plus years	.060	.025	.083	.108	.120	.103
Experience 10 to 14 years	-.111	-.129	-.084	-.071	-.067	-.079
Postgrad	.175	.155	.177	.155	.164	.161
MBRSG	.098	.091	.118	.131	.126	.124
Transactional x ability	-.092					
Transactional x motivation		-.113**				
Transactional x working environment			-.120*			
Laissez-faire x ability				-.085		
Laissez-faire x motivation					-.077	
Laissez-faire x working environment						-.099
Adjusted R square	28.8%	29.4%	29%	28.4%	28.4%	28.6%

Note: *** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1

The next three models (models 4 to 6) in table 8.4 show that having a transformational leadership style does not further enhance the effect that managers' ability, motivation and a firm's working environment has on outcome performance expectations. On the other hand, models 7 to 9 in table 8.5, show that having a transactional leadership style reduces the positive effect that managers with more motivation will have on performance outcome expectations and the same applies for the positive effect that the work environment has (at the 5% and 10% levels respectively). Finally, a laissez-faire leadership style does not change the relationship between ability, motivation or the work environment and performance outcome expectations (models 10 to 12, table 8.5) (see Appendix J).

A number of interesting findings emerge:

1. Ability and motivation have a significant positive effect on both transfer effort-performance expectations and performance outcome expectations.
2. Work environment has a positive significant effect on performance outcome expectations.
3. From the leadership styles only transformational leadership exerts a significant positive effect on performance outcome expectations.
4. Work environment positively moderates the positive effect that ability has on both transfer effort-performance expectations and performance outcome expectations. This means that organisations with supporting work environment further enhance the effect that ability has on transfer effort-performance expectations and performance outcome expectations.
5. A transactional leadership style negatively moderates the positive effect that motivation and work environment have on performance outcome expectations (and to a lesser extent ability – but not at a significant level). This means that although more motivated managers and those who operate under in a more support work environment have higher performance outcome expectations, they will be comparatively lower in organisations that have adopted transactional leadership styles.

8.6 Graphs for interactions

The following section presents the graphs only for the significant moderating relationships that were uncovered during the regression analysis. All graphs were estimated by using the method described in Aiken and West (1991), which is a widely used method for drawing interaction effects.

Figure 8.1 presents the relationship between transfer effort performance expectation and ability and it also shows how this relationship changes (or differs) depending on high, medium or low levels of the variable capturing work environment. It shows that at high values of the work environment variable, the rate of change that ability has on the TEP is higher in relation to medium or low levels of that variable.

Figure 8.1 Work environment moderating the relationship between ability and transfer effort performance expectations

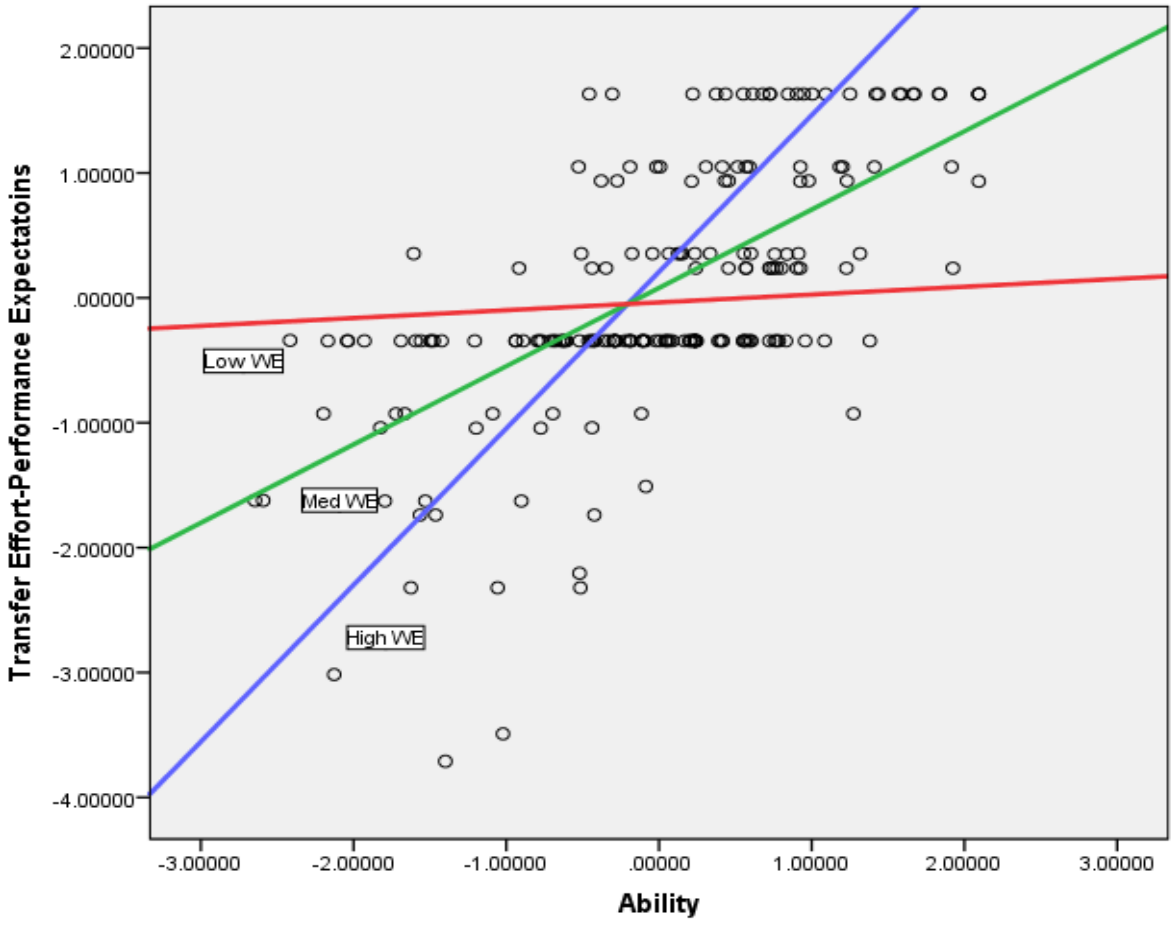


Figure 8.2 presents the relationship between performance outcome expectations and ability and it also shows how this relationship changes (or differs) depending on high, medium or low levels of the variable capturing work environment. It shows that at high values of the work environment variable, the rate of change that ability has on the performance outcome expectations is higher in relation to medium or low levels of that variable.

Figure 8.2 Work environment moderating the relationship between ability and performance outcome expectations

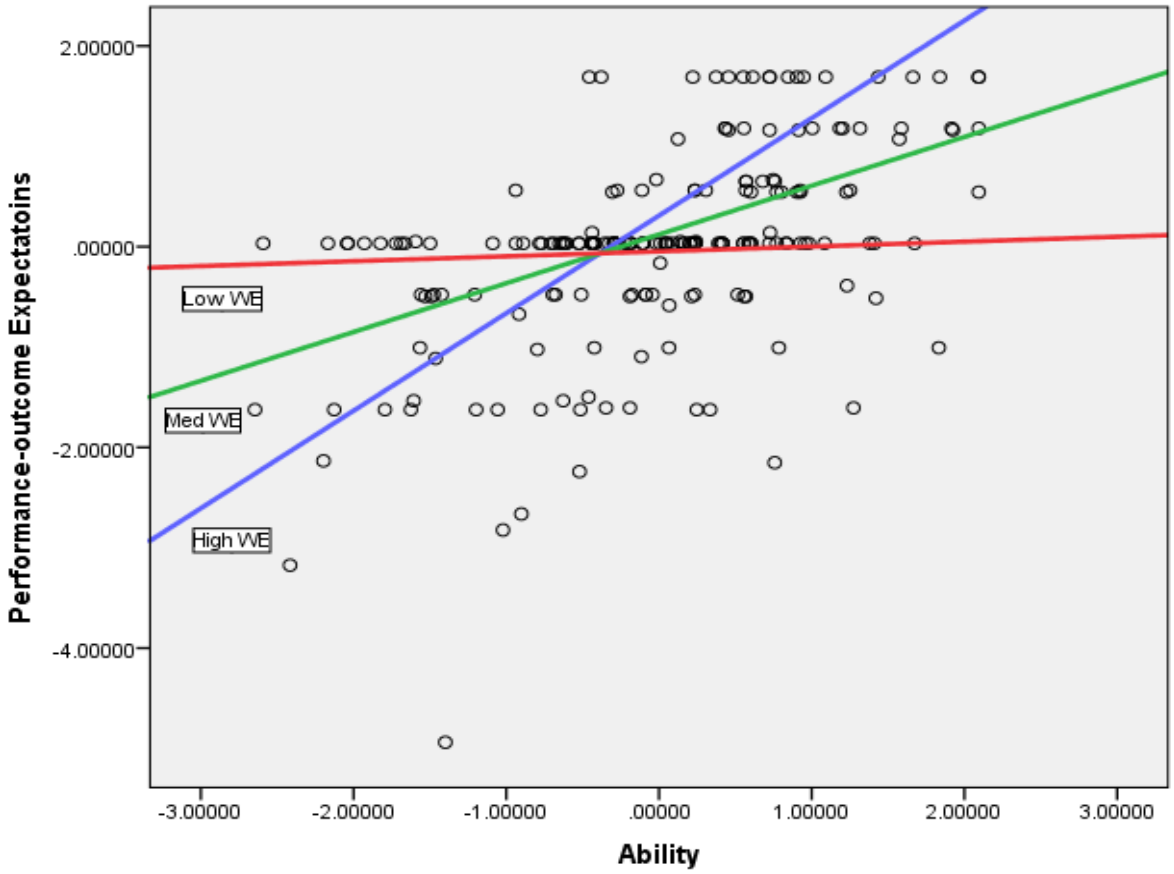


Figure 8.3 presents the relationship between performance outcome expectations and motivation and it also shows how this relationship changes (or differs) depending on high, medium or low levels of the variable capturing transactional leadership style. It shows that at high values of the transactional leadership variable, the rate of change that motivation has on the performance outcome expectations is more negative in relation to medium or low levels of that variable.

Figure 8.3 Transactional leadership style moderating the relationship between motivation and performance outcome expectations

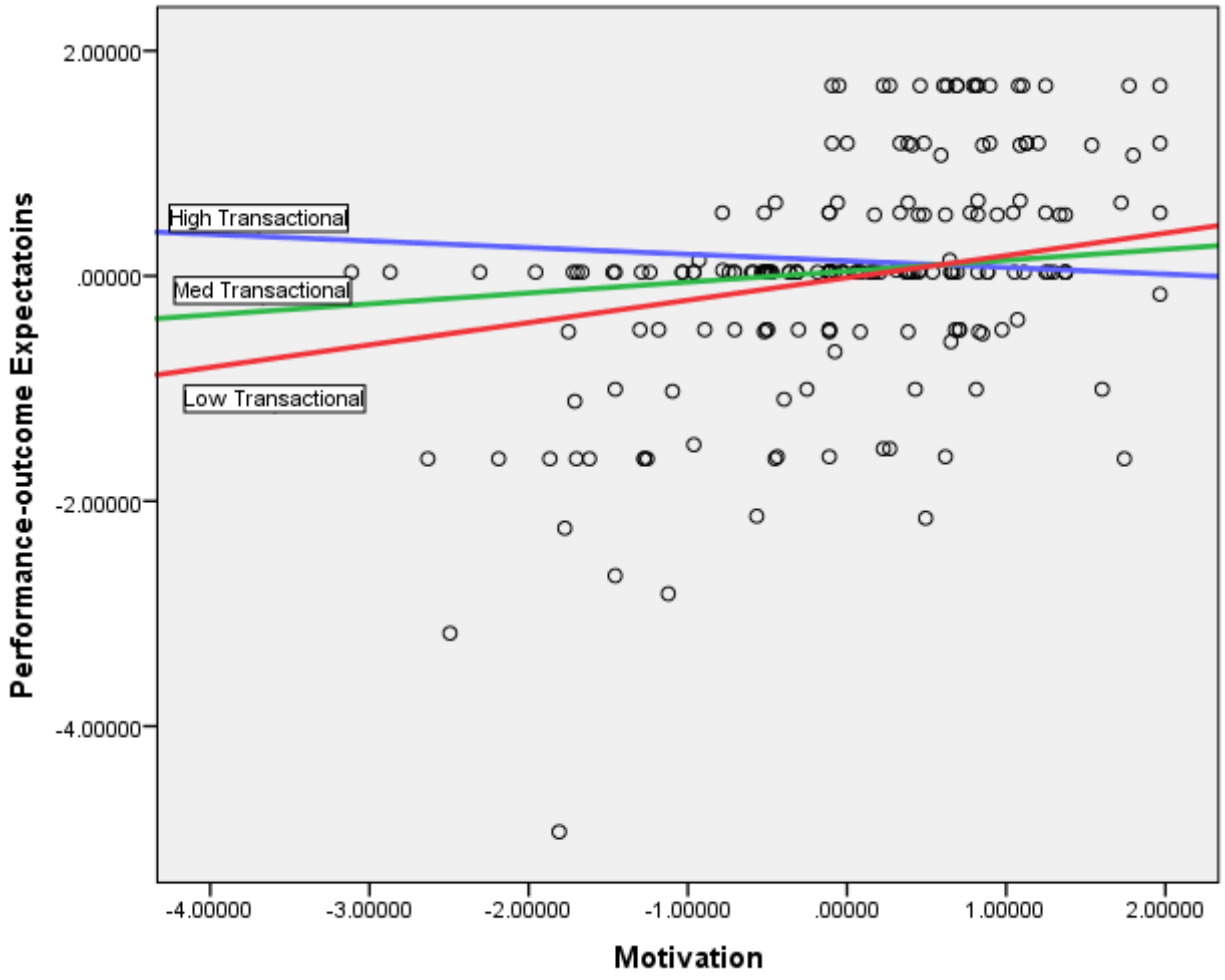
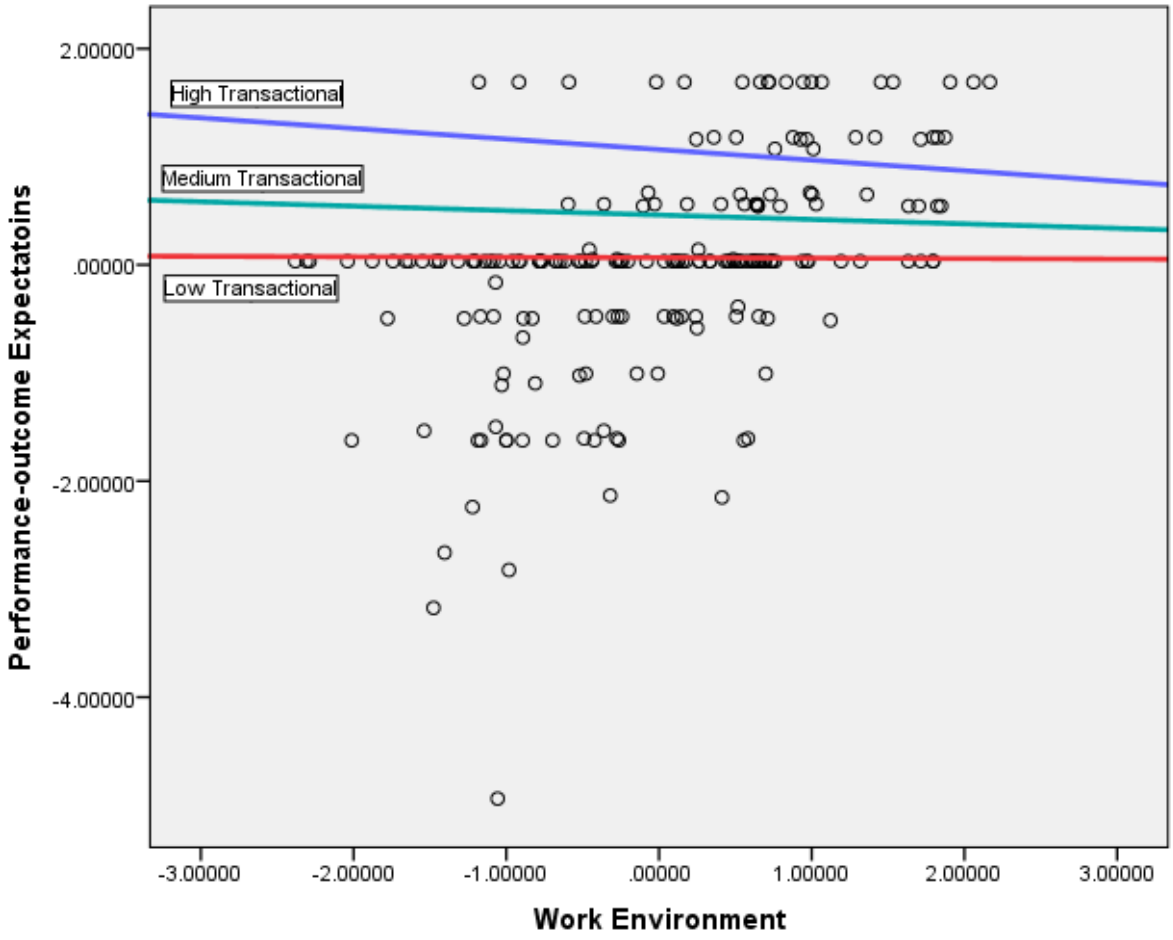


Figure 8.4 presents the relationship between performance outcome expectations and work environment and it also shows how this relationship changes (or differs) depending on high, medium or low levels of the variable capturing transactional leadership style. It shows that at high values of the transactional leadership variable, the rate of change that work environment has on the performance outcome expectations is more negative in relation to medium or low levels of that variable.

Figure 8.4 Transactional leadership style moderating the relationship between work environment and performance outcome expectations



Overall therefore the interaction graphs are in line with the discussion part of the thesis.

Chapter 9: DISCUSSION

9.1 Introduction

The main purpose of this chapter is to discuss the findings of the statistical analysis of phase (3) in relation to whether they support or not the suggested research questions and related hypotheses and to provide justification for either case.

This study examined the following research questions: (1) what are the conceptualisations of effective leadership in Dubai government organisations? (2) What are the expected outcomes of LDPs in Dubai government organisations? (3) Do leadership styles and work environment moderate the relationship between factors of ability and motivation that affect learning transfer and transfer effort-performance expectations and performance-outcome expectations?

It is suggested that transformational leadership is one of the most popular approaches to leadership (Bass, 1995). The results of the exploratory phases (see Chapter 5) showed that transformational leadership appears to be the style that was reflected by the senior leaders in Dubai government organisations. Still, further empirical investigation is required to find out about the moderating effect of leadership styles (Burke et al., 2006; Oke et al., 2009). In addition, many studies (Ford & Quinones, 1992; Quinones & Ford, 1995; Bates & Khasawneh, 2005; Burke & Hutchins, 2007; Hutchins et al., 2013) claim that work environment is one of the most important factors to influence the process of learning transfer. The results of the exploratory phases showed different factors that impact on learning transfer and work environment was one of the major factors. Accordingly, examination of the moderating impact of work environment on the relationship between factors of ability and motivation affecting learning transfer and transfer effort-performance expectations and performance-outcome expectations, is required.

The current study is among the first studies to examine the moderating effect of leadership styles on the relationship between factors of ability and motivation that affect learning transfer and transfer effort-performance expectations and performance-outcome expectations. Unlike other studies, that used the LTSI framework to examine the factors that influence learning transfer, this study draws attention to the importance of the influence of the leadership styles of the participants who completed LDPs. It considers how both leadership

styles and work environment factors can affect the relationship between the factors that impact on learning transfer and transfer effort-performance expectations and performance-outcome expectations.

9.2 Discussion of the hypotheses

The following section discussed the relationships between the main independent variables of this study (ability, motivation, work environment) and the moderating effect of leadership styles and work environment on the two dependent variables; transfer effort-performance expectations and performance-outcome expectations.

Hypothesis 1 states that:

Ability is positively related to transfer effort-performance expectations.

The statistical analysis shows that there is a significant relationship between ability and transfer effort-performance expectations. Therefore, the hypothesis is supported ability does positively influence the transfer effort-performance expectations. According to Holton et al. (2000), ability factors refer to those elements that permit a trainee to transfer learning effectively while transfer effort-performance expectations is the extent to which an individual believes that application of newly learned skills in training will lead to changes in individual performance. The results indicate that trainees with higher levels of ability report higher levels of transfer effort-performance expectations. In addition, they were more likely to believe that their transfer efforts will lead to some kind of change in their individual performance. The findings are consistent with the results of other studies (Baldwin & Ford, 1988; Tracey, Bates, Holton, & Seyler, 1998; Holton et al., 2000; Tracey; Hinkin, Tannenbaum & Mathieu, 2001) although in different contexts. However, in the context of the Middle East such as Jordan, a study by Khasawneh (2004), which was conducted for the Jordanian organisations, the findings also showed that the ability of the employees to use the skills and knowledge learned on the job enhances individual and organisational performances.

Therefore, the results support the proposed hypothesis and confirm that ability is positively related to transfer effort-performance expectations.

Hypothesis 2 states that:

Ability is positively related to performance-outcome expectations.

A significant positive relationship between ability and performance-outcome expectations was also uncovered. Therefore, the above hypothesis is supported and ability does positively influence the performance-outcome expectations.

According to Holton et al. (1998), performance-outcome expectations are job performance changes that lead to outcomes valued by an individual or an organisation. The results indicate that trainees are more willing to apply their ability when their expectation is greater when suitable outcomes, such as rewards, follow their improved performance. Noe (1986) argues that trainees with higher level of ability who apply the newly learned skills at the workplace report higher levels of performance outcome expectations and believe that their effort will result in some type of outcome. According to Yuan and Woodman (2010), employees act based on the expected consequences. Performance-outcome expectations include the ability to achieve objectives and goals, increasing the productivity and work quality, and improving general performance. Thus, results showed suggest that employees are more likely to apply the skills and knowledge learned to the workplace when they expect any type of outcome (Yuan & Woodman, 2010).

Therefore, the results support the hypothesis and confirm that ability is positively related to performance-outcome expectations.

In terms of the ability factor in relation to transfer effort-performance expectations and performance-outcome expectations, the results confirm that if the participants have the ability to transfer the newly skills learned to workplace, it will lead to changes in their performance.

Hypothesis 3 states that:

Motivation is positively related to transfer effort-performance expectations.

The statistical analysis supports the view of a significant positive relationship between motivation and transfer effort-performance expectations. Therefore, the related hypothesis is

supported and motivation does positively influence the transfer effort-performance expectations.

Motivation to transfer refers to a trainee's desire to put into practice both the skills and knowledge acquired in the training program (Noe & Schmitt 1986; Salas & Cannon-Bowers, 2001). The results indicate that the trainees with higher levels of motivation report higher levels of transfer effort-performance expectations. The results are consistent with Wieland-Handy (2008) who argue that if the motivation of the employees is high, then the level of transfer will improve. In addition, employees are likely to be motivated to apply the skills learned when they are confident of using their new skills in the workplace (Noe, 1986). The results are also consistent with the findings of Tziner, et al. (2007), who argue that employees with higher levels of motivation exhibit higher levels of learning and transfer than do employees with low levels of motivation.

Therefore, the results support the hypothesis and confirm that motivation is positively related to transfer effort-performance expectations.

Hypothesis 4 states that:

Motivation is positively related to performance-outcome expectations.

There was a significant relationship between motivation and performance-outcome expectations. Therefore, the hypothesis is supported; motivation did positively influence the performance-outcome expectations.

The results show that trainees with higher levels of motivation have higher levels of performance-outcome expectations. This is in line with suggestions put forward by Noe (1986) that trainees will be more motivated to practice the newly learned skills and knowledge if they believe that their effort will lead to increased performance and that this will ultimately result in some type of reward. The finding is similar to other studies (e.g. Werner, O'Leary-Kelly, Baldwin, & Wexley, 1994; Edwards, 2013; Hutchins et al., 2013, Çifci, 2014).

The study by Edward (2013) argues that if an employee believes that attending a training program will lead to a desirable outcome, such as a salary increase, then the motivation to transfer learning will increase. Moreover, Werner et al. (1994) declare that the trainee's

expectations about the outcomes of the training might have an effect on the motivation to learn as well as on subsequent performance.
Therefore, the results support the proposed hypothesis and confirm that motivation is positively related to performance-outcome expectations.

Hypothesis 5 states that:

Work environment is positively related to performance-outcome expectations.

The statistical analysis shows that there is a significant and positive relationship between work environment and performance-outcome expectations. Therefore, the hypothesis is supported. The finding indicates that trainees with a supportive work environment have higher levels of performance-outcome expectations.

Some prior studies have shown that learning transfer is influenced by work environment (e.g. Tracey et al., 1995; Cheng & Ho, 2001; Burke & Hutchins 2007; Blume et al., 2010). Research suggests that when employees have a supportive work environment, they are more likely to practice the skills gained and apply the knowledge learned to the workplace (Velada et al., 2007). Supervisory guidance, backing and influence is one of the crucial factors of a supportive work environment (Burke & Hutchins 2007). The supervisor is the one who controls the outcome expectations and who can provide feedback and reward to maintain learning transfer (Kozlowski & Salas, 1997; Holton et al., 2000; Blume et al., 2010). In addition, the results in phases (1) and (2), as discussed in Chapter 5, show that the work environment has a major effect on learning transfer. It also shows that employees are not motivated and encouraged to transfer learning when their supervisors are not supportive. Moreover, the results in phases (1) and (2) suggest that employees who have completed LDPs are not motivated to practice their skills to receive rewards if their managers do not support them.
Therefore, the results support the hypothesis and confirm that the work environment is positively related to performance-outcome expectations.

The results of the present study have established a direct relationship between ability, motivation, and work environment on the transfer effort-performance expectations and performance-outcome expectations. However, few studies (Sinha, 2001; Chan & Drasgow, 2001; Brenner, 2004; Hanna, 2007; Sørensen, 2017) have examined the potential influence of

moderators on the relationship between ability, motivation, and work environment on the transfer effort-performance expectations and performance-outcome expectations.
The present study addressed this gap by identifying the effect of two moderating variables: work environment and leadership styles. Specifically this study examined the influence of two moderating factors, work environment and leadership styles, has on the relationship between ability, motivation, and work environment and the transfer effort-performance expectations and performance-outcome expectations.

The following section explains the results:

Moderating effect

In this study, four moderating variables were tested (work environment and the three leadership styles) to establish their impact on the relationship between each of the independent variables (ability and motivation) and the dependent variables (transfer effort-performance expectations and performance-outcome expectations).

Moderator: Work environment

Some studies (Richman-Hirsch, 2001; Hawley & Barnard, 2005; Bates & Khasawneh, 2005; Burke & Hutchins, 2007) argue that work environment is one of the most important factors influencing the process of learning. According to Sinha (2001), a supportive work environment will increase the ability and motivation of an individual to transfer skills learned to the workplace. A number of hypotheses tested in the present study relate to the role that work environment plays as a moderator in the relationship between ability, motivation and transfer effort-performance expectations and performance-outcome expectations:

Hypothesis 6: **Work environment positively moderates the relationship between ability and transfer effort-performance expectations.**

This hypothesis was supported and it shows that a supportive work environment can increase the ability of the trainees to transfer the knowledge and skills learned to their workplace (Holton et al., 2000; Sinha, 2001; Brenner, 2004). For example, if employees practise the skills learned, it will lead to changes in their individual performances (Holton et al., 2000) and that effect will further increase if this takes place in a supportive work environment. The

performance of the employees depends mainly on their willingness and ability to apply their skills on their job (Sinha, 2001). If they have a supportive work environment (such as supervisory support and peer support), the employees will be even more encouraged to use their skills and knowledge at their workplace (Tracey et al., 1995; Colquitt et al., 2000). Ultimately, this can lead to increased employee productivity (Brenner, 2004).

Therefore, the results support the hypothesis and confirm that work environment positively moderates the relationship between ability and transfer effort-performance expectations.

Hypothesis 7: Work environment positively moderates the relationship between ability and performance-outcome expectations.

This hypothesis was supported. Specifically, work environment positively moderates the positive effect that ability has on both transfer effort-performance expectations and performance-outcome expectations. This means that organisations with supportive work environments further enhance the effect that ability has on both transfer effort-performance expectations and performance-outcome expectations. The results imply that the ability of the trainees to practise the skills learned at the workplace increases with a supportive work environment (Holton et al., 2000). Supervisory support is one of the elements of the work environment considered the most influential elements in learning transfer (Baldwin & Ford, 1988; Tracey et al., 1995; Cheng & Ho, 2001; Cromwell & Kolb, 2004).

According to Baldwin and Ford (1988), supervisory support can be provided in different ways. For instance, supervisors can meet with trainees prior to the programs, to discuss their main purpose and their content, and encouraging them to attend the program (Brinkerhoff & Montesino, 1995). The involvement of the trainees with their supervisors prior to the training program can increase their ability and prepare them to attend the program (Tannenbaum & Yukl, 1992). If the trainees receive the right support and guidance from their supervisors, the new knowledge and skills can be used at the workplace (Lim & Johnson, 2002; Gümüşeli & Ergin, 2002). Then the trainees will have more chances and be more able to transfer the new learned skills (Colquitt, et al., 2000b; Wang & Wentling, 2001).

Supervisors usually control outcome expectations because they can provide feedback and reward to maintain learning transfer (Baldwin & Ford, 1988; Tracey et al., 1995; Kozlowski

& Salas, 1997). In other words, if employees believe that their effort will result in some type of outcome, such as additional rewards (Noe, 1986), then they will have the ability to transfer the skills learned to the workplace (Colquitt, et al., 2000b; Wang & Wentling, 2001). However, if there is no supportive work environment or supervisory support, the trainee will have fewer chances and less opportunity to be able to transfer learning (Sørensen, 2017). If there is no supportive work environment, then the employees will not have the ability to share skills and knowledge learned with their organisations (Brenner, 2004; Richman-Hirsch, 2001).

Therefore, the results support the hypothesis and confirm that the work environment moderates positively the relationship between ability and performance-outcome expectations.

Hypothesis 8: Work environment positively moderates the relationship between motivation and transfer effort-performance expectations.

Despite suggestions from the literature that a supportive work environment motivates employees and leads to improved productivity (Colquitt et al., 2000; Brenner, 2004; Saks & Burke, 2012), this hypothesis is not supported. Saks and Burke (2012) declared that with a supportive work environment, employees will be more satisfied with their jobs and will be more motivated to transfer the skills learned to their workplace.

The results do not support the hypothesis that if an individual's motivation is high, then the level of learning transfer will correspondingly improve. There is a probability that the participants of LDPs who have been back to work for a couple of months will fall back into their old habits and routines (Totlund, 2014). According to Lysø (2010), it will be difficult for an individual to practises the skills and knowledge learned at workplace. Although there is a supportive work environment, the motivation of an individual will affect the learning transfer (Mezirow, 2000).

There is explanation for this finding. The candidates, selected for the LDPS, might not be the right candidates or be potential leaders. The exploratory phases examined the selection process (which is merit based and random). For example, one of the respondents said:

"The selection of people is the most successful factor for any program especially for LD so when you select the right people, it will improve the success outcomes of such programs"

As a result, trainees who were selected randomly to join LDPs, and who are not potential leaders, will not be motivated to transfer skills and knowledge learned even though with a supportive work environment. Another of the respondents argued that:

"We need to invest in our youth to choose the best among them where we believe that they are the most suitable people from Dubai to be leaders in the future".

The results show the importance of choosing the right person to join LDPs and to make sure the LDPs create the right leaders.

Therefore, the results do not support the hypothesis and do not confirm that the work environment positively moderates the relationship between motivation and transfer effort-performance expectations.

The results suggest a direction for future research that investigates other factors that might moderates the relationship between the two variables (motivation and transfer effort-performance expectations).

Hypothesis 9: Work environment positively moderates the relationship between motivation and performance-outcome expectations.

This hypothesis was not supported, despite suggestions from the literature that a supportive work environment will motivate employees who have participated in training program to transfer their new knowledge to their workplace and to apply the newly acquired skills (John-Paul Hatala & Fleming, 2007).

Thus, the results do not support that if employees have a supportive work environment, they will be motivated to transfer learning to get a reward (Sinha, 2001). As mentioned earlier, Totlund (2014) suggests that participants who have completed LDPs might not be motivated to use the skills learned on the job. That is because the effect of development would be gone in 3 to 6 months (Goleman, Boyatzis & McKee, 2002).

Perhaps the participants who completed LDPs do not have the time to use the skills and knowledge learned in their workplace. Santos and Stuart (2003) argue that lack of time is a main explanation given by managers for low transfer.

Therefore, the results do not support the hypothesis and do not confirm that the work environment positively moderates the relationship between motivation and performance-outcome expectations. The results build a call for research to examine the moderating effect of the work environment and other factors that might influence the two variables (motivation and performance-outcome expectations).

The findings about the moderating influence of the work environment on the relationship between ability, and motivation and transfer effort-performance expectations and performance-outcome expectations discussed above, show that ability factor is more important than other factors. Motivation alone does not influence transfer effort-performance expectations or performance-outcome expectations. This suggests there is a need for further research.

Moderator: Leadership styles

Transformational leadership styles

Hypothesis 10: Transformational leadership style is expected to positively moderate the relationship between ability, motivation and work environment to a greater extent in relation to transactional style.

Leadership development programs commonly focus on developing leadership skills that may require proactive steps to increase the leader's motivation and interest to apply the skills learned to the workplace (Chan & Drasgow, 2001). Therefore, leaders who completed LDPs are expected to have the ability and motivation to use and apply the skills and knowledge learned. In addition, as discussed, if trainees have self-awareness of their own process of learning, then they are more likely to be motivated and be more effective in their learning experiences (Flavell, 1979; Kuhn & Dean, 2004; Hanna, 2007). It was argued in the literature review chapter that there is evidence that transformational the leadership style tends to be more effective than other leadership styles (Dvir et al., 2002).

The employees who have already completed LDPs are expected to have different leadership skills and styles, which will foster the ability and motivation to transfer learning. According

to Lord and Hall (2005), metacognitive skills are particularly important for leaders who already have developed basic leadership skills. In addition, Ruggieri et al., (2013) argue that transformational leadership is expected to be more effective in enhancing metacognitive skills. The results from phases (1) and (2) show that transformational leadership appears to be the style that was reflected by most the senior leaders in Dubai government organisations. One of the key findings in this research was that of the leadership styles, only transformational leadership styles exerts a significant positive effect on performance-outcome expectations, thereby further supporting the results of the previous discussion.

This hypothesis regarding a moderating impact was not supported. This is despite suggestions from the literature that the characteristics of transformational leadership encourages personal growth and helps leaders to become more aware of their abilities (Ruggieri et al., 2013). It is also suggested that a transformational leader can create the impression that an individual has high ability, motivation and a vision to succeed (Robert, 2006). Nevertheless, the findings of the present study do not show the transformational leadership style as influencing the nature of the relationship between the factors of ability, motivation and work environment and transfer effort-performance expectations and performance-outcome expectations. The results do not indicate that the transformational leadership style alone strengthens the relationship.

Although the results of the exploratory phases showed that transformational leadership style is the preferred style among the employees at Dubai government organisations, the results in the quantitative phase do not support the notion that transformational leadership influences the relationship between ability, motivation and work environment and transfer effort-performance expectations and performance-outcome expectations. The results in quantitative phase only show that the top management who have attended LDPs scored higher in transformational leadership styles than do middle management or the first level management who attended the same program.

A possible explanation for these findings is the context. Perhaps leadership is conceptualised and enacted differently across cultures (Dickson et al., 2012), as mentioned in the literature review chapter. Effective leadership styles evolve in line with the underlying cultural contexts (Kabasakal et al., 2012). Context comprises history, language, religion, rules and laws, and political systems that determine the most effective ways of leading (Kabasakal et al., 2012). Morrison (2000) asserts that if the dynamics of the context are understood, then

the most effective leadership prototypes and attributes can be defined for that particular context.

Therefore, the results do not support the hypothesis and do not confirm that a transformational leadership style positively moderates the relationship between ability, motivation and work environment and transfer effort-performance expectations and performance-outcome expectations.

Transactional leadership styles

Hypothesis 11: Transactional leadership style is expected to positively moderate the relationship between ability, motivation and work environment at a greater extent in relation to laissez-fair style.

This hypothesis was not supported. This is despite suggestions from the literature that the characteristics of a transactional leadership style can promote performance and increases expectations to accomplish (Avolio & Bass 2004; Smith et al. 2004; Galanou, 2010; Yozgat & Kamanli, 2016). Meisam et al., (2013) argue that transactional leadership is based on the process of exchange where the leader administers sanctions and rewards. The potential rewards are usually of monetary benefits such as salary increase and promotions. Accordingly, a leader who practices the transactional leadership approach often uses the reward methods to increase corporate performance (Dai et al., 2013). As mentioned in the conceptualisation chapter, transfer effort-performance expectations is the extent to which an individual believes that application of newly learned skills in training will lead to changes in individual performance (Holton, 2000). Holton (2000) performance-outcome expectations as the extent to which an individual believes that changes in job performance will lead to outcomes. It was expected that if employees believe that attending a training program will lead to a desirable outcome (such as salary increase), then the motivation to transfer learning will also increase (Edwards, 2013). That is because a transactional leader can have the ability and motivation to transfer the skills learned and perform the tasks based on the expectation that they have to get rewards (Yozgat & Kamanli, 2016). A study by Afolabi et al. (2008) provided evidence in favour of transactional leadership, and argued that transactional leadership is more effective when organisations desire to accomplish their objectives.

However, the results show that a transactional leadership style negatively moderates the relationship between motivation and work environment and performance-outcome expectations. The results show that the relationship is weakened when a transactional leadership approach is used. Specifically, the results indicate that a transactional leadership style negatively moderates the positive effect that both motivation and work environment have on performance-outcome expectations (and to a lesser extent ability – but not at a significant level). This implies that more motivated employees, and those who operate under a more supportive work environment, will have higher performance-outcome expectations, but less so than those who have adopted transactional leadership styles.

Specifically the implication is that motivation and work environment most strongly affect performance-outcome expectations, when transactional leadership is low. Alternatively, the results of the present study indicate that the strength of the relationship between motivation and work environment and performance-outcome expectations is weakened by the presence of transactional leadership.

The negative moderating effect can be explained if one considers how organisations measure performance expectations and set relevant targets. Targets are often quantifiable, for example increased sales, profits, or the successful completion/delivery of a particular project. The direct outcomes of a leadership development program have to do more with increasing an individual's effectiveness as a leader by being more empathetic, having improved problem solving skills in dealing with employees concerns, or motivating them. However, those program outcomes are not directly linked with the traditional performance expectations and measures that organisations set and, therefore, a participant might not find a direct linkage between the two. Given that participants will focus on devoting more time to activities that will increase the chances of reaching performance targets under a transactional leadership style in order to gain rewards and avoid punishment, it is unlikely that they will feel motivated to transfer the skills learned to the organisation. This confirms previous findings that a transactional leader can only perform based on the rewards that they are expecting to receive (Karami et al., 2014; Yozgat & Kamanli, 2016).

The results can be explained in the following manner. In the current study, the rationale for examining the transactional versus the transformational leadership style as moderators was operationalized within the context of 'self' and not in terms of the manner in which

leadership style influences others. For instance, Lord and Hall (2005) and Zimmerman (2008) propose that mature leaders are characterized by higher self-awareness and ability to proactively develop metacognition skills through process of reflecting on themselves in a proactive manner. Lord and Hall (2005) also propose that as leaders progress from novice to expert, they become increasingly capable of flexibility drawing on internal resources such as identity, values and mental representation of subordinates and situations. Thus, development of metacognition skills reflects ability among leaders to become increasingly aware of their own selves, and through that process continue to evolve as more effective leaders.

There is substantive evidence in literature to indicate that behaviours of transactional leaders are reward-contingent such that their motivation is primarily extrinsic. Their behaviour is driven by extrinsic rewards and lower-order needs (Bass, 1985, 1995, 1997; Bass and Avolio, 1994; Bono & Judge; 2004; Bono, 2012) as opposed to transformational leaders who are driven by intrinsic rewards. A transactional leader is concerned about the statusquo and day-to-day progress to accomplish goals (Avolio & Bass, 2004). Transformational leaders are driven by intrinsic motivation and can create the impression that an individual has high ability and a vision to achieve success (Robert, 2006).

Drawing from the leading–managing paradigm, transactional leaders fall within the 'managing' spectrum characterized by a preference for the statusquo and following rules rather than being proactive or taking the initiative to drive change, which are necessary for leading. Thus, as suggested by the results of the present study, when transactional leadership is high the relationship between motivation and work environment and performance-outcome expectations gets weaker. Thus, as per the results of the present research, although transformational leadership by itself does not strengthen the relationship between ability, motivation, work environment and transfer effort-performance expectations and performance-outcome expectations, transactional leadership as a moderator has a weakening effect on the relationship.

This is a unique and significant finding and contributes to literature as there are no studies have yet examined the moderating impact of leadership styles on the relationship between antecedent and outcome factors with regard to learning transfer. Drawing on the work of other researchers (Lord & Hall, 2005; Boal & Hooijberg, 2007; Ruggieri et al., 2013), it may be argued that transactional leadership/leaders can be categorized in the 'novice category'. On the other hand, transformational leaders may be classified in the 'intermediate' to 'expert'

categories with these latter categories characterized by higher self-awareness as reflected by their metacognitions abilities to develop their own core selves in relation to the others.

Given the above arguments, the finding of the negative moderating relationship is important because it implies that even with higher levels of motivation and work environment factors, a transactional leader can have a detrimental effect on performance-outcome expectations. This could be explained by the fact that transactional leaders operate at lower levels of the need hierarchy and expect rewards in exchange for the accomplishment of goals.

The results of the present study makes a specific contribution by arguing for more studies that explore, in depth, the manner in which transactional leadership style plays out in relation to the self and to the others, to explain the potential reasons for the negative moderating impact of transactional leadership. Although further research is needed in this direction, from a practical point of view, the findings of this present study allude to the need for leadership development programs to focus on developing styles that enables learning transfer.

Further, the results of the present study also show that top management who have attended LDPs scored higher in transformational leadership styles compared to middle management and first level management (supervisor or equivalent) who have attended the same program. First level of management (supervisor or equivalent) scoring higher in laisser-fare leadership styles. This finding is particularly important because it implies that LDPs have a more positive impact on those who have had the opportunity to exercise leadership rather than on those who have relatively less supervisory experience. It might be postulated that those who have reached senior leadership positions are those who have had an opportunity to reflect on their own selves, and thus grow as leaders, thereby benefiting more from the leadership development programs. The quantitative results are very much in alignment with the findings of the exploratory phases, which showed that transformational leadership appears to be the style reflected by the senior leaders in Dubai government organisations who were interviewed with regard to their conceptualisation of effective leadership.

An examination of the causality of the differences in leadership styles was beyond the scope of the study. A direction for future research could be to examine how LDPs influence leaders at multiple supervisory levels.

Table 9.1: A summary of the hypotheses

H#	Hypothesis	Result
H1	Ability is positively related to transfer effort-performance expectations.	Supported
H2	Ability is positively related to performance-outcome expectations.	Supported
H3	Motivation is positively related to transfer effort-performance expectations.	Supported
H4	Motivation is positively related to performance-outcome expectations.	Supported
H5	Work Environment is positively related to performance-outcome expectations.	Supported
H6	Work Environment positively moderates the relationship between ability and transfer effort-performance expectations.	Supported
H7	Work Environment moderates the relationship between ability and performance-outcome expectations.	Supported
H8	Work environment moderates the relationship between motivation and transfer effort-performance expectations.	Not supported
H9	Work environment moderates the relationship between motivation and performance-outcome expectations.	Not supported
H10	Transformational leadership style is expected to positively moderate the relationship between ability, motivation and work environment to a greater extent in relation to transactional style.	Not supported
H11	Transactional leadership style is expected to positively moderate the relationship between ability, motivation and work environment at a greater extent in relation to laissez-fair style.	Not supported

To sum up, the main objective of this chapter was to review the main findings of the study and to provide a detailed discussion and interpretation. This study adds to the literature and opens a call for future research to further investigate factors that can affect learning transfer. In terms of the moderating influence of work environment, the results show the importance of the ability factors (motivation factors are not significant). In addition, the moderating effect of leadership styles shows that transformational leadership styles do not have an effect on the relationship between ability, motivation, work environment and transfer effort-performance expectations and performance-outcome expectations. However, transactional leadership styles have a negative impact on the same relationship.

CHAPTER 10: CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

10.1 Introduction

There is increasing recognition among organisations that investment in learning and development interventions is necessary for sustained organisational performance and excellence. Specifically, use of leadership development programs (LDPs) has seen a continued upward trend with both government and the private sector continuing to invest in LDPs (Al Naqbi, 2010; Carbone, 2009; Woltring et al., 2003).

The rapid economic progress of the UAE has similarly seen a significant rise in government investment in LDPs (Abbas and Yaqoob, 2009; Madsen, 2010; Mameli, 2013; Marmenout and Lirio, 2014) based on the recognitions that effective leaders are necessary not only for steering organisational success (Abdalla & Al-Homoud, 2001) but also for the growth of the economy. Given these investments, it is necessary to ensure that LDPs achieve their stated objectives (Gentry et al., 2014), by building the required leadership skills and competencies and by providing enabling environments to facilitate transfer of skills to the workplace.

The main objective of this research was to identify the conceptualisation of what makes an effective leader in Dubai government organisations. The study also sought to examine the factors that affect the learning transfer and to examine how leadership styles and work environment moderate the relationship between factors of ability, motivation that impact on learning transfer and transfer effort-performance expectations and performance-outcome expectations.

To answer these key research questions, the study utilized a mixed method approach with phases (1) and (2) data collected through an exploratory/qualitative approach. A quantitative approach to data collection was utilized in the third phase as a method of triangulation. The chapter starts with an overview of the gaps addressed through this research (both scholarly and practical). Key finding are discussed with a focus on scholarly implications and practical contributions. The chapter concludes with an identification of the limitations of the study and recommendations for future research.

10.2 Research Overview

While learning transfer is considered a significant outcome of LDPs, conceptual models to measure learning transfer are limited. One of the most comprehensive measures is provided by Holton et al. (2000) and this measure was used for the purposes of the present study in the context of Dubai government organisations. Further, drawing on the recognition that motivation to transfer learning can be considered a predictor of learning transfer; the outcomes of LDPs in the present study were operationalized as transfer effort-performance expectations and performance outcome expectations. The findings are located within a broader framework with phases (1) and (2) exploratory data informing the framework that was tested with quantitative data collected in phase (3). For example, transformational leadership appeared to be the style reflected by the senior leaders in Dubai government organisations and the quantitative phase extended this finding by providing evidence that top management trainees who have attended LDPs score higher in transformational leadership style than middle management and first level management.

Key factors that influence learning transfer include ability, motivation and work environment. These results are important because they provide an impetus for organisations to give a thought to the factors that can play a significant role in influencing the extent to which trainees feel motivated to transfer the skills and knowledge gained through LDPs.

The finding that work environment has a major impact on learning transfer is supported by previous research (Quinones & Ford, 1995; Gaudine & Saks 2004; Burke & Hutchins 2007). The work environment factors that were examined in this present research include supervisory support, peer support and openness or resistance to change. The findings strengthen the argument that participants of LDPs can only transfer learning within an enabling environment. No studies have previously examined multilevel factors that affect learning transfer in the context of Dubai government organisations. This is the first study to do so and it has established a direct relationship between ability, motivation and work environment factors and learning transfer, measured as transfer effort-performance expectations and performance-outcome expectations.

The present research has also found that a supportive work environment could strengthen the ability and motivation of trainees to transfer the skill and knowledge learned to their

workplace when work environment was examined as moderating factor. The finding further supports the need to provide enabling work environments in order to reap the benefits of learning and development interventions such as LDPs.

Drawing on phases (1) and (2) results, the study also examined the moderating impact of leadership styles on the relationship between factors of ability, motivation and work environment impacting on learning transfer and transfer effort-performance expectations and performance-outcome expectations. No studies have previously measured this relationship and the results of the present study provide evidence that while transformational leadership styles do not have a moderating influence, transactional leadership styles weaken the relationship. This implies that even with the necessary ability and motivation and enabling work environment factors present, a transactional leader can have a negative impact on the transfer effort-performance expectations and performance-outcome expectations.

This is an important finding and points to the need for further studies to examine how different leadership styles affect the self and others. While transformational leadership style did not emerge as a moderating factor in the present study, some studies suggest that leaders with more mature leadership skills, and transformational leaders, are able to reflect on their own learning and demonstrate competence for developing and enhancing metacognitive skills (Ruggieri et al., 2013). While examination of metacognitive skills was beyond the scope of the present study, the results call more for more research to explore in-depth how metacognitive skills can moderate the relationship between the antecedents factors that can affect learning transfer.

No studies have previously observed the moderating impact of leadership styles but the results of the present study provide evidence that transactional styles weaken the relationship between motivation, work environment and performance-outcome expectations. Results of other studies show that leaders with more mature leadership skills are more able to reflect on their own learning, and transformational leaders are expected to be more competent in developing and enhancing their metacognitive skills (Ruggieri et al. 2013). Testing this relationship in the present study did not yield a positive result.

10.3 Theoretical contributions

The study is the first to examine the moderating impact of key variables including leadership styles and work environment on the relationship between ability, motivation and work environment and transfer effort-performance expectations and performance-outcome expectations.

While the LTSI models have been utilized to examine the direct relationship, the results of the present study have tested an extended version of the model by adding these moderating variables. The finding that work environment factors strengthen the relationship between ability and transfer effort-performance expectations and performance-outcome expectations is a significant finding that supports the findings of other studies. For example, if employees applied the skills learned in the LDPs to their job, it would lead to changes in their individual performances and that effect will further increase if the application of the skills takes place in a supportive work environment.

The findings in terms of performance-outcome expectations also support the findings of previous studies such as those of Richman-Hirsch (2001), Brenner (2004), and Sørensen (2017). The results show that if employees believe that their effort will result in some type of outcomes such as additional rewards then they will have the ability to transfer the skills learned at workplace.

The finding that the transactional leadership style weakens the relationship and calls for more research to examine, especially with regard to leadership styles as a reflection of metacognitions, the nature of this relationship. Another finding that shows top management who attended LDPs scored higher in transformational leadership styles than middle management and first level management is significant. However, research required to identify if different leadership styles have differential impacts on trainee motivation and ability to transfer the skill learned to the work place. For example, Ruggieri et al (2013) argued that leaders with more mature leadership skills have the ability to reflect on their own learning, with transformational leaders reflecting competence for developing and enhancing metacognitive skills.

Further, the quality of effective leaders in Dubai government organisations were found to have styles that are described in the literature as transformational leadership style (Bass, 1995; Bass, 1995; Avolio & Bass, 2004). The results of the study show that the top management who have attended LDPs score higher in transformational leadership styles compared to middle management and the first level management.

The main theoretical contribution of this study is adding leadership style and work environment factors as moderators to examine if they strengthen or weaken the relationship between ability, motivation and work environment and transfer effort-performance expectations and performance-outcome expectations. No studies have previously observed the moderating influence of leadership style on relationship between antecedents and outcome factors. Most studies in leadership development programs have used the LTSI model (Hutchins et al. 2013, Jackson & Bushe 2007, Kirwan & Birchall 2006, Austin et al., 2006) without adding the role of moderating factors. Key findings, such as transactional leadership style weakening the relationship between motivation and work environment and performance-outcome expectations, points to the need for further research to examine, the comparative influence of different moderators on the strength of the relationship between antecedent and outcome factors. Specifically, findings of the present study strengthen the argument for further studies to identify the leadership styles that can enhance the trainees' motivation and ability to transfer the skills and knowledge learned to their workplace.

10.4 Practical contributions

The study is beneficial to Human Resources Development (HRD) practice and research in the UAE with a focus on leadership development programs. This study provides quite crucial data for building effective leadership development programs in Dubai government organisations, and offers insights about how to facilitate learning transfer. For example, the potential problems that might hinder learning transfer can be identified by using the research framework. The findings also imply that organisations investing heavily in LDPs will only reap the benefits of the LDPs if the participants are returning to a supportive work environment.

The results from the exploratory phases show that work environment factors, such as supervisory support, can a have a major impact on learning transfer. The participants of LDPs had some resistance to application of the skills learned to the workplace because of lack of

supervisory support. If supervisors are not supporting the participants who completed LDPs to apply the skills and knowledge learning during the program, then the HDR should pay attention to changing the attitude of supervisors toward new knowledge and skills practiced in the workplace.

Accordingly, the managers in Dubai government organisations should be aware of their significant role in improving learning transfer. The results show that it is important for managers to meet the trainees after the completion of LDPs to discuss ways to apply the skills learned on the job. In addition, the results show that if employees seem not to be motivated to apply the skills learned to their workplace, then the human resources department should consider developing fair and equitable reward systems for the employees to strengthen the performance-outcome expectations.

As found in the qualitative phases, the conceptualisation of leadership for effective leaders, as defined by the senior leaders at Dubai government organisations, is similar to transformational leadership. The results from the quantitative phase also showed that the top management who have attended LDPs scored higher in transformational leadership styles than middle management or first level management (supervisor or equivalent) who have attended the same program. Leadership development programs appeared to be having a greater positive impact on those who had more supervisory experience compared to those who had relatively less supervisory experience. This implies that the selection process is one of the factors that can affect any training program. The results show that some organisations only send employees who have not attended any training course to LDPs. Accordingly, this research can guide Dubai government organisations to give serious thought to the selection process of the candidates for LDPs.

From the practical perspective, Dubai government organisations can use the developed framework for the present study to evaluate the effectiveness of LDPs. Most of the LDPs in Dubai government organisations were evaluated by asking the trainees whether they liked the training program or not, aligned with the first level of the Kirkpatrick model. However, the results of the present study clearly indicate the need to examine how learning transfer is impacted as measured by transfer effort-performance expectations and performance-outcome expectations. Dubai government organisations are investing significantly in leadership development programs but these programs can only be considered effective if participants

have the ability to transfer the skills learned to their workplace. Another practical contribution is driven by the finding that transactional leadership styles weaken the relationship between factors of motivation and work environment and performance-outcome expectations. This implies that training designers and key decisions makers need to pay attention to the kind of leadership styles being developed by the LDP participants with some emphasis on how the LDPs are improving the participants, ability and motivation to practise the skills and knowledge learned at their workplace.

The findings in the exploratory phases show different selection procedures are followed in LDPs in Dubai government organisations, which are merit based and rely on random selection. The results show that few of the participants are ready to be potential leaders. Therefore, key decision makers and training designers in Dubai government organisations should consider their selection procedures and choose the best candidates to participate in LDPs.

Because no other studies have used the Learning Transfer System Inventory (LTSI) model, this study is the first of its kind in the context of the UAE, particularly Dubai government organisations. The LTSI model has been used in 17 countries and utilized 14 different language versions but none of them have considered the moderating effect of leadership style and work environment on the relationship between ability, motivation, work environment and transfer effort-performance expectations and performance-outcome expectations.

Furthermore, training designers and key decision makers should focus more on the contents of LDPs and emphasise the characteristics of leadership styles more and how they can be used for building metacognitions skills. Although both transformational and transactional leadership styles promote the effectiveness of organisations, the transformational leadership style has a positive influence on leaders, subordinates and organisations. This study focused only on three leadership styles (transformational, transactional and laissez-faire) but other styles should be considered for future research.

Training designers and key decision makers should focus more on enriching the content of LDPs. The findings in the exploratory phases show the importance of modifying the contents of LDPs, particularly the cultural understanding in LDPs. The respondents gave the highest rating to cultural consideration in LDPs. Islamic values, traditions and customs are intensely

rooted in the cultural values of societies in the Middle Eastern countries. The findings show that some LDPs consider cultural understanding in LDPs; however, other LDPs develop their programmes by copying Western theories and models without consideration to cultural understanding. There is a need to look at the content of LDPs conducted in Dubai government organisations so that the content is culturally sensitive and better meets the needs of the trainees and this is an area for future research.

Many organisations in the UAE are seeking to implement various forms of leadership development program but are confused about the most appropriate LDPs to match their needs. As a result, the contextual relevance of these universal theories and practices should be more flexible to different contexts, particularly while applying them across a number of different countries such as the Gulf regions.

Thus, benefits of this research are that it highlights factors impacting on learning transfer in the context of LDPs that are conducted in Dubai government organisations. Further, it contributes to knowledge and practice by formalizing a framework that points out to the factors, including ability, motivation and work environment, to be considered in LDPs to enhance the learning transfer in a new region, this being Dubai government organisations.
It will also encourage governmental organisational decision-makers in Dubai seriously consider the factors influencing learning transfer from their LDPs. The results confirm that a conductive environment for learning transfer is crucial for the success of LDPs.

10.5 Limitations and recommendations for future research

This section considers the study's limitations study and makes recommendations for future research.

Specifically, the results confirm the proposed relationship in the theoretical framework as presented in chapter 6, in particular the direct relationship and the moderating effect of work environment factors on the relationship between ability and transfer effort-performance and performance-outcome expectations. While the transformational leadership style did not play a moderating role, transactional leadership was found to weaken the relationship. This area should be explored further and other moderating factors that may influence the relationship between antecedent's factors and learning transfer should be considered.

One of the limitations of the present study is that it is a cross-sectional study and so the causality of the relationships cannot be established. Longitudinal studies are therefore recommended in future research to measure the relationships proposed in the framework.

In terms of methodology, the sample responses were from Dubai government organisations only, and, therefore, generalizability is limiting. The study can be replicated using different samples, for example by using a sample of the leaders in the private sector.

An area to consider is whether different LDPs influence the nature of the relationship proposed in the framework in different ways. Further, although the study shows that transactional leadership moderated negatively on the relationship between motivation and work environment and performance-outcome expectations, further in-depth studies are required.

A limitation of this study is that it employed self-reporting measures that may be influenced by social desirability bias. Respondents are usually unable or unwilling to report truthfully on sensitive topics. The respondents are biased toward answering what is right or socially acceptable instead of showing their true feelings. Additional work is required to identify different measures that are reliable and valid, and less sensitive to social desirability bias.

Additionally, hindsight bias should be considered in future research since this study only measured the responses of trainees after they had completed LDPs. People usually tend to overestimate their own performance as an outcome of the program, and see themselves more positively than they are. Future research should observe hindsight bias in other types of assessments and evaluations.

In conclusion, the research has examined the factors that influence learning transfer along with moderating factors that can impact leadership styles. The study is the first of its kind to use the LTSI framework in a new context. Further, the findings of the present study extend the body of literature by testing an expanded version of the LTSI model. The findings suggest that investments in LDPs should give due consideration to learning transfer and the factors that can facilitate this learning transfer. In addition, the finding provide evidence that leadership styles alone can have an impact on the nature of the relationship between the factors of motivation, ability and work environment, that affect learning transfer, and transfer

effort-performance expectations and performance-outcome expectations. Careful consideration must be given to the kind of leadership styles that are being developed amongst the trainees knowing that the style of leadership can influence learning transfer. Appropriate leadership style need to be developed in the context of Dubai government organisations.

Furthermore, since this study used leadership styles as an indicator of metacognition, future studies may need to study metacognitions as a moderator. This suggestion is made given that transactional styles have been found to weaken the relationship between antecedent and outcomes.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A
Phases (1&2)

UNIVERSITY OF WOLLONGONG

In reply please quote: HE14/018

13 February 2014

Ms Amira Kamali
UOW Dubai

Dear Ms Kamali,

Thank you for your response dated 11 February 2014 to the HREC review of the application detailed below. I am pleased to advise that the application has been approved.

Ethics Number:	HE14/018
Project Title:	Leadership Development Program (LDP): A review of contextual and cultural factors and how they impact LDP effectiveness
Researchers:	Ms Amira Kamali, Dr Payyazhi Jayashree, Professor Valerie Lindsay
Approval Date:	13 February 2014
Expiry Date:	12 February 2015

The University of Wollongong/Illawarra Shoalhaven Local Health District Social Sciences HREC is constituted and functions in accordance with the NHMRC *National Statement on Ethical Conduct in Human Research*. The HREC has reviewed the research proposal for compliance with the *National Statement* and approval of this project is conditional upon your continuing compliance with this document.

A condition of approval by the HREC is the submission of a progress report annually and a final report on completion of your project. The progress report template is available at http://www.uow.edu.au/research/rso/ethics/UOW009385.html. This report must be completed, signed by the appropriate Head of School, and returned to the Research Services Office prior to the expiry date.

As evidence of continuing compliance, the Human Research Ethics Committee also requires that researchers immediately report:

- proposed changes to the protocol including changes to investigators involved
- serious or unexpected adverse effects on participants
- unforseen events that might affect continued ethical acceptability of the project.

Please note that approvals are granted for a twelve month period. Further extension will be considered on receipt of a progress report prior to expiry date.

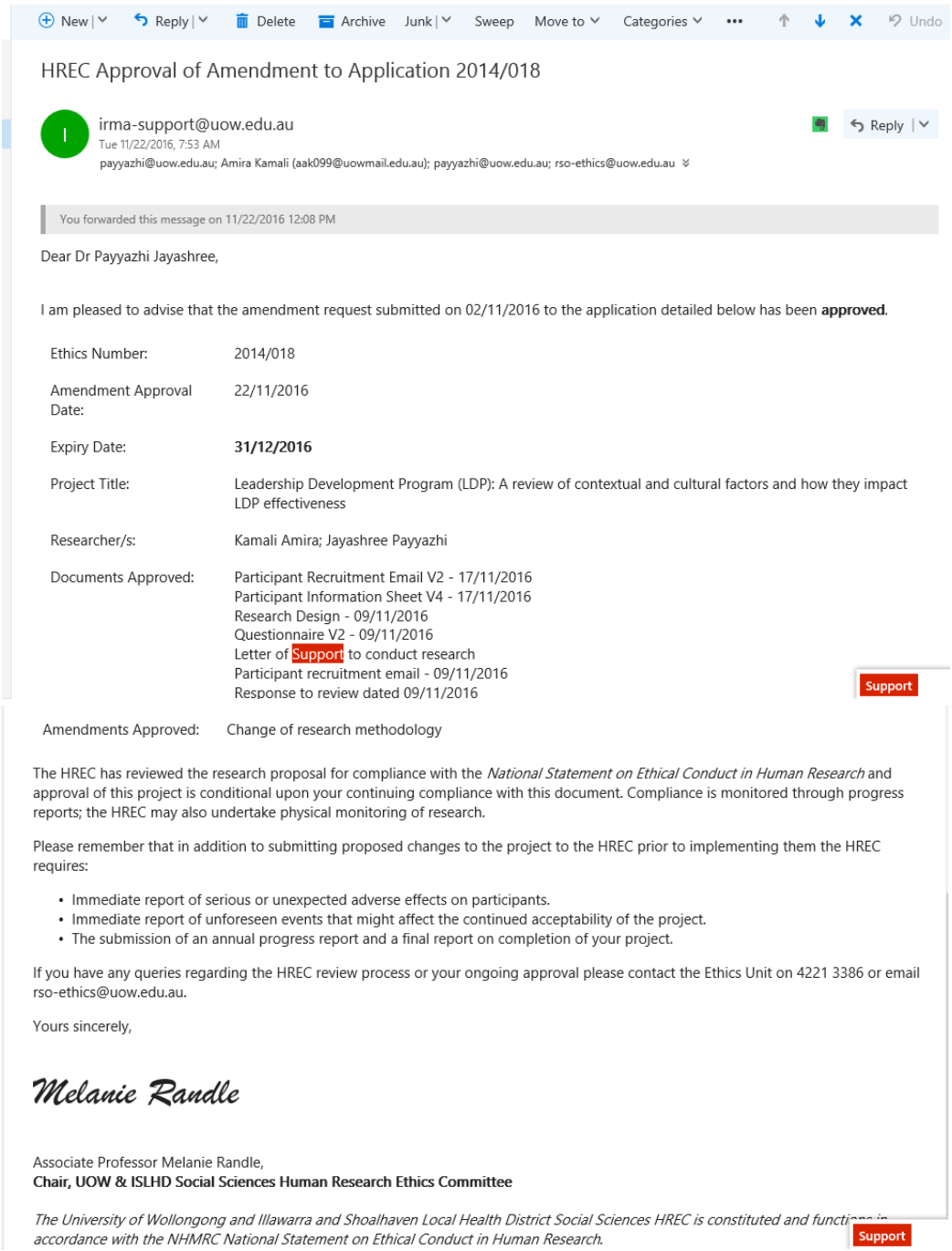
If you have any queries regarding the HREC review process, please contact the Ethics Unit on phone 4221 3386 or email rso-ethics@uow.edu.au.

Yours sincerely

Professor Kathleen Clapham
Chair, Social Sciences
Human Research Ethics Committee

Ethics Unit, Research Services Office
University of Wollongong NSW 2522 Australia
Telephone (02) 4221 3386 Facsimile (02) 4221 4338
Email: rso-ethics@uow.edu.au Web: www.uow.edu.au

Phase (3)



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HREC Approval of Amendment to Application 2014/018

irma-support@uow.edu.au
Tue 11/22/2016, 7:53 AM
payyazhi@uow.edu.au; Amira Kamali (aak099@uowmail.edu.au); payyazhi@uow.edu.au; rso-ethics@uow.edu.au

Reply

You forwarded this message on 11/22/2016 12:08 PM

Dear Dr Payyazhi Jayashree,

I am pleased to advise that the amendment request submitted on 02/11/2016 to the application detailed below has been **approved**.

Ethics Number:	2014/018
Amendment Approval Date:	22/11/2016
Expiry Date:	**31/12/2016**
Project Title:	Leadership Development Program (LDP): A review of contextual and cultural factors and how they impact LDP effectiveness
Researcher/s:	Kamali Amira; Jayashree Payyazhi
Documents Approved:	Participant Recruitment Email V2 - 17/11/2016 Participant Information Sheet V4 - 17/11/2016 Research Design - 09/11/2016 Questionnaire V2 - 09/11/2016 Letter of Support to conduct research Participant recruitment email - 09/11/2016 Response to review dated 09/11/2016
Amendments Approved:	Change of research methodology

Support

The HREC has reviewed the research proposal for compliance with the *National Statement on Ethical Conduct in Human Research* and approval of this project is conditional upon your continuing compliance with this document. Compliance is monitored through progress reports; the HREC may also undertake physical monitoring of research.

Please remember that in addition to submitting proposed changes to the project to the HREC prior to implementing them the HREC requires:

- Immediate report of serious or unexpected adverse effects on participants.
- Immediate report of unforeseen events that might affect the continued acceptability of the project.
- The submission of an annual progress report and a final report on completion of your project.

If you have any queries regarding the HREC review process or your ongoing approval please contact the Ethics Unit on 4221 3386 or email rso-ethics@uow.edu.au.

Yours sincerely,

Melanie Randle

Associate Professor Melanie Randle,
Chair, UOW & ISLHD Social Sciences Human Research Ethics Committee

The University of Wollongong and Illawarra and Shoalhaven Local Health District Social Sciences HREC is constituted and functions in accordance with the NHMRC National Statement on Ethical Conduct in Human Research.

Support

Appendix B

CONSENT FORM (1): Leadership Conceptualisation

RESEARCH TITLE

Leadership development programs (LDPs): A review of contextual and cultural factors and how they impact LDP effectiveness

I have been given information about this research related to ’Leadership development programs (LDPs): A review of contextual and cultural factors and how they impact LDP effectiveness’and have discussed the research project with Amira Kamali who is conducting this research as part of her DBA degree, supervised by Dr. Payyazhi Jayashree and Prof.Valerie Lindsay in the Faculty of Business at the University of Wollongong in Dubai.

I have been advised of the potential risks, and burdens associated with thisresearch, which include up to one hour of my time for a face to face interview to be conducted by the researcher. Apart from the required time for the interview, the researcher can foresee no risks for me.In addition, I have been informed that I will not be able to withdraw my data, should I wish to withdraw my participation in the study after I have completed my interview. I have also had an opportunity to ask Amira Kamali any questions that I may have about theresearch and my participation in the same.

I understand that my participation in this research is voluntary, I am free to refuse to participate and I am free to withdraw from the research at any time. My refusal to participate or withdrawal of consent will not affect *my treatment in any way /my relationship with the organization .or my relationship with the University of Wollongong in Dubai*

Participants wish to ask questions or obtain further information about the research, they should contact the researcher directly (Amira Kamali at aak099@uowmail.edu.au)

If I have any concerns or complaints regarding the way the research is or has been conducted, I can contact the Ethics Officer, Human Research Ethics Committee, Office of Research, University of Wollongong on 4221 3386 or email rso-ethics@uow.edu.au.

By signing below I am indicating my consent for a face to face semi-structured interview for approximately one hour wherein I will be required to state my opinion on a number of important issues related to leadership and the contextual and cultural factors which impact LDP effectiveness

(please tick):

☐ Consent to audio record the interview

I understand that the data collected from my participation will be used for writing my doctoral *thesis, extracts from the thesis my also be presented at Academic conferences and published in journals,* and I consent for it to be used in that manner.

Signed Date

..../...../.....

Name (please print)

.....

PARTICIPANT INFORMATION SHEET (1)

Title: Leadership Conceptualisation

Target group: Leaders such as directors, managing directors, general managers and chief executive officers

TITLE:

Leadership development program (LDP): A review of contextual and cultural factors and how they impact LDP effectiveness

PURPOSE OF THE RESEARCH

This is an invitation to participate in a study conducted by researchers at the University of Wollongong in Dubai. The project has the following aims:

First, the study reviews existing literature on LDP effectiveness to present a conceptual framework that identifies key contextual factors including national culture that must be considered when designing LDPs and how they can impact the effectiveness of LDPs.

Second, the study provides theoretical and practical insights into the impact of contextual factors, particularly national culture on the effectiveness of leadership development programs in a research context that has been little studied to date.

INVESTIGATORS

1.Amira Kamali

DBA Student

University of Wollongong in Dubai

Block 15, Dubai Knowledge Village

P.O.Box 20183, Dubai, UAE

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2.Dr. PayyazhiJayashree

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Email: valerielindsay@uowdubai.ac.ae
Web: www.uowdubai.ac.ae

METHOD AND DEMANDS ON PARTICIPANTS

You have been approached to participate in this interview because of your senior position in Dubai government organisations and your expertise in leadership. If you choose to be included, you will be asked to participate in a personal interview by the chief investigator, Amira Kamali. On this visit the researcher will conduct an interview of approximately of an hour on various aspects related to leadership conceptualisation and to examine what makes an effective leader in UAE Dubai government organisations.

POSSIBLE RISKS, INCONVENIENCES AND DISCOMFORTS

Apart from the one hour of your time for the interview, we can foresee no risks for you. Your involvement in the study is voluntary and you may withdraw your participation from the study at any time during the one hour interview and once the interview is completed, you can't withdraw any data. Refusal to participate in the study will not affect your relationship with the University of Wollongong in Dubai, UAE However; you will not be able to withdraw your data, should you wish to withdraw your participation in the study after you've completed the interview.

FUNDING AND BENEFITS OF THE RESEARCH

This study is not funded by any funding body and is being undertaken byAmiraKamali as partial fulfillment for her DBA degree

The research will haveboth theoretical and practical contributions.At a theoretical level, it is expected that this study will contribute to the literature on leadership and its interaction with cultural and contextualissues. At the practical level, it is expected that the outcome of this research will help decision makers in Dubai government organisations to have a better understanding of leadership development programs and how contextual factors including national culture contributes to their success. This study will mainly contribute in evaluating the effectiveness of LDPs used in Dubai government organisations. Furthermore, this study will provide a framework for how the leadership approaches used in Dubai government organisations can assess the skills and practices which are critical for building an effective leader. It is expected that the findings of this study will assist organisations in Dubai governments in insuring that their LDPs will produce substantial and positive outcomes, particularly if the programs are tailored and suitable for UAE culture. Finally, it will be the first study to take into account the cultural issues in associated with LDPs especially within the UAE context.

INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

Sample questions for phase (1): Leadership Conceptualisation

1) How do you define leadership?
2) Leadership is emphasized in the Strategic Plan for the Emirate of Dubai 2015. In your view, what is the relevance of leadership skills in Dubai government organisations?
3) Are there any specific leadership challenges faced by Dubai government organisations?
4) What are the specific leadership skills that could be of value in the effective functioning of Dubai government organisations?
5) To be an effective leader within Dubai government organisation, would one require cross cultural understanding?

ETHICS REVIEW AND COMPLAINTS

This study has been reviewed by the Social Sciences Human Research Ethics Committee of the University of Wollongong in Dubai. If you have any concerns or complaints regarding the

way this research has been conducted you can contact the UOW Ethics Officer on (02) 4221 3386 or email rso-ethics@uow.edu.au.

Thank you for your participation in this study

Appendix B

CONSENT FORM (2): Leadership development programs effectiveness

RESEARCH TITLE

Leadership development programs (LDPs): A review of contextual and cultural factors and how they impact LDP effectiveness

I have been given information about this research related to 'Leadership development programs (LDPs): A review of contextual and cultural factors and how they impact LDP effectiveness'and have discussed the research project with Amira Kamali who is conducting this research as part of her DBA degree, supervised by Dr. Payyazhi Jayashree and Prof.Valerie Lindsayin the Faculty of Business at the University of Wollongong in Dubai.

I have been chosen to participate in this interview because I had the opportunity to participate in Leadership Development Program (LDPs). I have been advised of the potential risks, and burdens associated with this research, which include up to one hour of my time for a face to face interview to be conducted by the researcher. Apart from the required time for the interview, the researcher can foresee no risks for me. In addition, I have been informed that I will not be able to withdraw my data, should I wish to withdraw my participation in the study after I have completed my interview. I have also had an opportunity to ask Amira Kamali any questions that I may have about the research and my participation in the same.

I understand that my participation in this research is voluntary, I am free to refuse to participate and I am free to withdraw from the research at any time. My refusal to participate or withdrawal of consent will not affect *my treatment in any way* /*my relationship with the organisation .or my relationship with the University of Wollongong in Dubai*

Participants wish to ask questions or obtain further information about the research, they should contact the researcher directly (Amira Kamali at aak099@uowmail.edu.au)

If I have any concerns or complaints regarding the way the research is or has been conducted, I can contact the Ethics Officer, Human Research Ethics Committee, Office of Research, University of Wollongong on 4221 3386 or email rso-ethics@uow.edu.au.

By signing below I am indicating my consent for a face to face semi-structured interview for approximitely one hour wherein I will be required to state my opinion on a number of important issues related to leadership and the contextual and cultural factors which impact LDP effectiveness

(Please tick):

☐ Consent to audio record the interview

I understand that the data collected from my participation will be used for writing my doctoral *thesis, extracts from the thesis my also be presented at Academic conferences and published in journals*, and I consent for it to be used in that manner.

Signed Date

..../...../.....

Name (please print)

.....

PARTICIPANT INFORMATION SHEET (2)

Title: Leadership development programs (LDPs) effectiveness

Target group: participants of LDPs, organisational decision makers, training designers and leaders

TITLE:

Leadership development programs (LDPs): A review of contextual and cultural factors and how they impact LDP effectiveness

PURPOSE OF THE RESEARCH

This is an invitation to participate in a study conducted by researchers at the University of Wollongong in Dubai. The project has the following aims:

First, the study reviews existing literature on LDPs effectiveness to present a conceptual framework that identifies key contextual factors including national culture that must be considered when designing LDPs and how they can impact the effectiveness of LDPs.

Second, the study provides theoretical and practical insights into the impact of contextual factors, particularly national culture on the effectiveness of leadership development programs in a research context that has been little studied to date.

INVESTIGATORS

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3. Prof. Valerie Lindsay
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METHOD AND DEMANDS ON PARTICIPANTS

You have been approached to participate in this interview because you had the opportunity to participate in Leadership Development Program (LDPs). If you choose to be included, you will be asked to participate in a personal interview by the chief investigator, Amira Kamali. On this visit the researcher will conduct an interview of approximately an houraboutLDPs which will required you to state your view on a number of issues related to the contents and conceptualisation of LDPs as implemented in Dubai government organisations.

If you choose to be included, you will be asked to participate in a personal interview by the chief investigator, Amira Kamali. On this visit the researcher will conduct a one hour interview on various aspects related to leadership development programs (LDPs), specifically, to identify the expected outcomes from LDPs and to look at the contents and conceptualizaion of LDPs as implemented in Dubai government organisations. In addition to few questions related to content, design, delivery and evaluation.

POSSIBLE RISKS, INCONVENIENCES AND DISCOMFORTS

Apart from the one hour of your time for the interview, we can foresee no risks for you. Your involvement in the study is voluntary and you may withdraw your participation from the study at any time during the one hour interview and once the interview is compelted, you can’t withdraw any data. Refusal to participate in the study will not affect your relationship

with the University of Wollongong in Dubai, UAE However; you will not be able to withdraw your data, should you wish to withdraw your participation in the study after you've completed the interview.

FUNDING AND BENEFITS OF THE RESEARCH

This study is not funded by any funding body and is being undertaken by Amira Kamali as partial fulfillment for her DBA degree

The research will have both theoretical and practical contributions. At a theoretical level, it is expected that this study will contribute to the literature on leadership and its interaction with cultural and contexual issues. At the practical level, it is expected that the outcome of this research will help decision makers in Dubai government organisations to have a better understanding of leadership development programs and how contextual factors including national culture contributes to their success. This study will mainly contribute in evaluating the effectiveness of LDPs used in Dubai government organisations. Furthermore, this study will provide a framework for how the leadership approaches used in Dubai government organisations can assess the skills and practices which are critical for building an effective leader. It is expected that the findings of this study will assist organisations in Dubai governments in insuring that their LDPs will produce substantial and positive outcomes, particularly if the programs are tailored and suitable for UAE culture. Finally, it will be the first study to take into account the cultural issues in associaed with LDPs especially within the UAE context.

INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

Sample questions for phase (2): Leadership development programs effectiveness

1. What are the expected outcomes for LDPs within Dubai government organisations?
2. How do you choose your participants? Is there training needs analyses conducted? Are there any specific criteria or standards that determinethe choice of participants?
3. Do you evaluate the effectiveness of LDPs? If yes, how?
4. Are there any challenges that Dubai government organisations face during implementation of LDPs? Please elaborate.
5. Do you think cultural considerations or other contextual factors might have an impact on LDPs effectiveness? If so, what are these factors specifically and how might they impact LDP effectiveness?

ETHICS REVIEW AND COMPLAINTS

This study has been reviewed by the Social Sciences Human Research Ethics Committee of the University of Wollongong in Dubai. If you have any concerns or complaints regarding the way this research has been conducted you can contact the UOW Ethics Officer on (02) 4221 3386 or email rso-ethics@uow.edu.au.

Thank you for your participation in this study

Appendix C

Phase (1): Leadership Conceptualisation

Target group: Leaders such as directors, managing directors, general managers and chief executive officers

1) While early leadership theories have suggested that great leaders are born rather than made, the current prevailing belief is that leadership can be learned, and that most people are capable of developing their leadership skills. What do you think of this statement that leaders are born, not made? Do you think leadership can be taught?

2) How do you define leadership?

3) Leadership is emphasized in the Strategic Plan for the Emirate of Dubai 2015. In your view, what is the relevance of leadership skills in Dubai government organisations?

4) Are there any specific leadership challenges faced by Dubai government organisations?

5) What are the specific leadership skills that could be of value in the effective functioning of Dubai government organisations?

6) To be an effective leader within Dubai government organisation, would one require cross cultural understanding? Please elaborate.

7) Are there any other contextual considerations that might impact leadership effectiveness within Dubai government organisations? Please elaborate.

8) In your view, what are the most effective mechanisms by which UAE government organisations can develop the relevant leadership skills across multiple levels within the organisation?

Phase (2): LDPs effectiveness

Target group: Training designer and key decision makers

Many UAE government organisations are considering it necessary to develop effective leaders and seek out successful Leadership Development Programs (LDPs) from external providers. Also leadership development is emphasized in the Strategic Plan for the Emirate of Dubai 2015. Let's start off by discussing about the LDPs in your organisation.

1. What are the expected outcomes for LDPs within Dubai government organisations?
2. Are the LDPs currently being implemented in your organisation, developed in-house or do you rely on outside vendors/external providers:

   a. If you develop the LDPs in-house, what are the key factors that you consider while designing and developing LDPs and who are the key people involved in the process?

   b. If you rely on external providers, what are the key factors that you consider before adopting the same? Do you contextualize these LDPs? If so, how and who is involved in the process?
3. How do you choose your participants? Is there training needs analyses conducted? Are there any specific criteria or standards that determine the choice of participants?
4. Do you evaluate the effectiveness of LDPs? If yes, how?
5. Are there any challenges that Dubai government organisations face during implementation of LDPs? Please elaborate.
6. Do you think cultural considerations or other contextual factors might have an impact on LDPs effectiveness? If so, what are these factors specifically and how might they impact LDP effectiveness?

7. How do you support the employees who have successfully completed LDPs? For example, do you celebrate their success through some public recognition such as award ceremonies?
8. Are there any other modifications that are made to organisational systems and processes such as performance management systems and/or reward mechanisms to facilitate the enactment of effective leadership? If so, how?
9. In your experience have you found LDPs contributing to positive change within your organisation? If so, how?
10. If you were given the opportunity to improve LDPs as they are currently being practiced, what would you do specifically? Could you please suggest any two interventions that Dubai government organisations could apply to improve the effectiveness of LDPs?

Appendix D

The demographic profiles of the participants of phase (1)

Codes	Organisations Names	Gender	Age group	Academic background	Designation	Years in the scheme of service	Years in the leadership positions
KH	Organisation A	Male	40-45	Master degree in Business Administration	Head of Human Resources Department	20	17
MJ	Organisation A	Male	55-60	Master degree in Education	Director General Assistant for Corporate Support Sector	27	25
RM	Organisation A	Male	40-45	Master degree in Environmental Science	Head of section of Public Health And Safety	16	14
HQ	Organisation A	Male	40-45	Master degree in Business Administration	Head of Engineering Contracts Section	18	15
EG	Organisation B	Male	40-45	Master degree in International Business	Corporate Support Director	22	15
OQ	Organisation B	Male	55-60	PhD in Emergency and crises management	Director of Medical and Technical affair Department	38	30
MA	Organisation B	Male	30-35	Bachelor in paramedics	Head of community awareness section	6	2
IB	Organisation C	Female	40-45	Bachelor degree in Banking and Finance	General co-ordinater of MBRCLD	21	5
EM	Organisation C	Female	40-45	Master degree in International Business	Director of Policy	20	10
FR	Organisation C	Male	35-40	Master in Finance	Director of Support Services Department	19	9

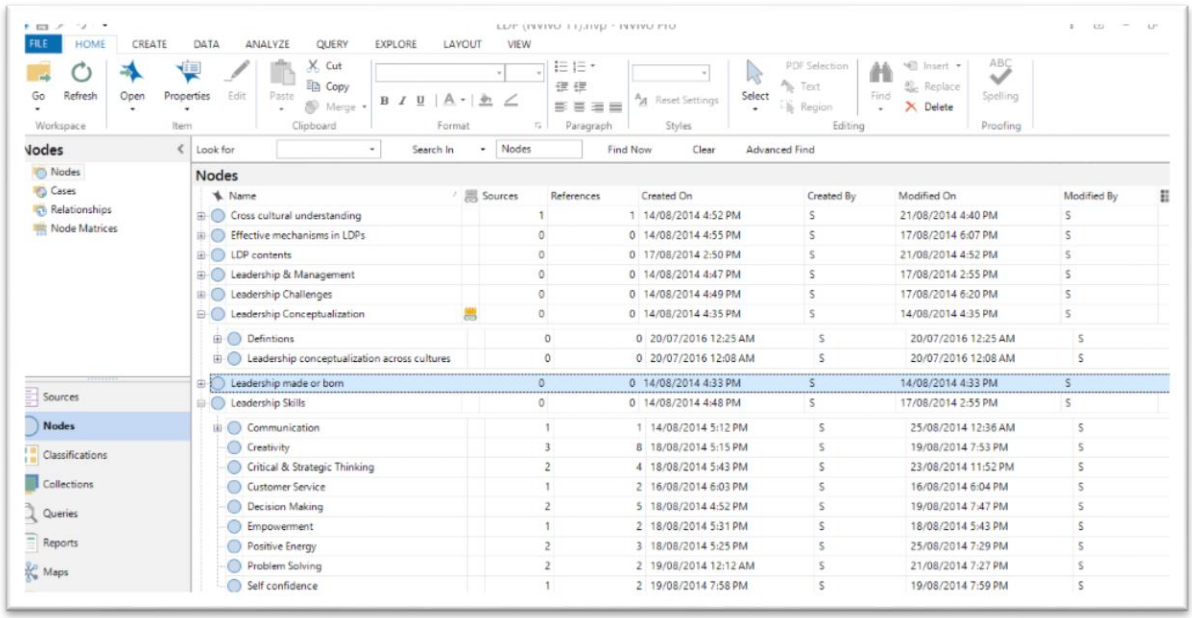
Appendix E

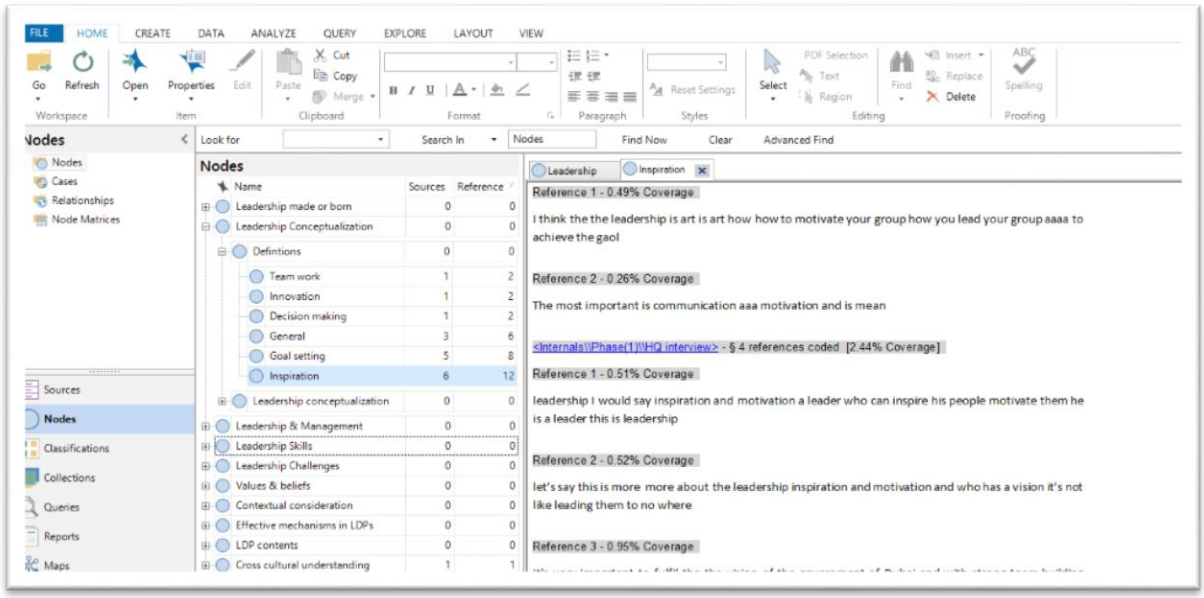
Codes	LDPs types	Gender	Age Group	Nationality	Academic Background	Designation
R1	MBRSG	Female	40-45	UAE	Master	Training Designer
R2	MBRSG	Female	30-35	UAE	Master	Training Designer
R3	MBRSG	Male	35-40	UAE	Phd	President of MBRSG
R4	MBRSG	Female	30-35	UAE	Bachelor	Training Designer
R5	Customized LDP (C)	Female	35-40	UAE	Master	HR director
R6	Customized LDP (C)	Male	35-40	Egypt	Bachelor	Training Designer
R7	Customized LDP (C)	Female	30-35	UAE	Bachelor	Training Designer
R8	MBRCLD	Female	40-45	UAE	Bachelor	Training Designer
R9	MBRCLD	Female	35-40	India	Master	Head of Assessment Centre
R10	MBRCLD	Male	40-45	UAE	Master	Head of LDPs Section

Appendix F

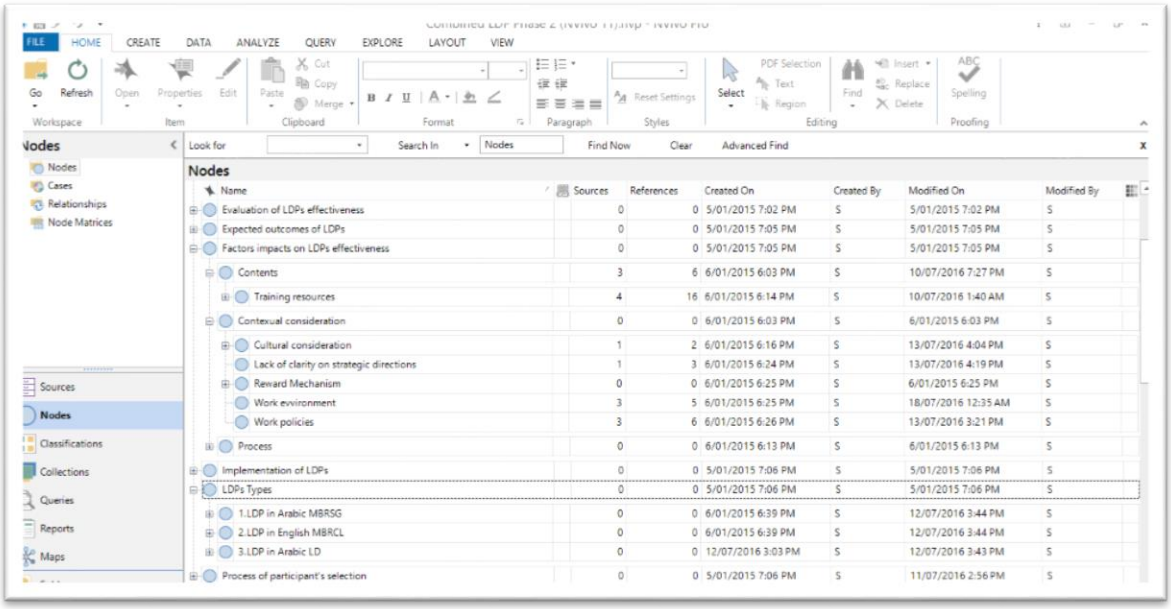
Screenshot of major themes in phases (1) and (2)

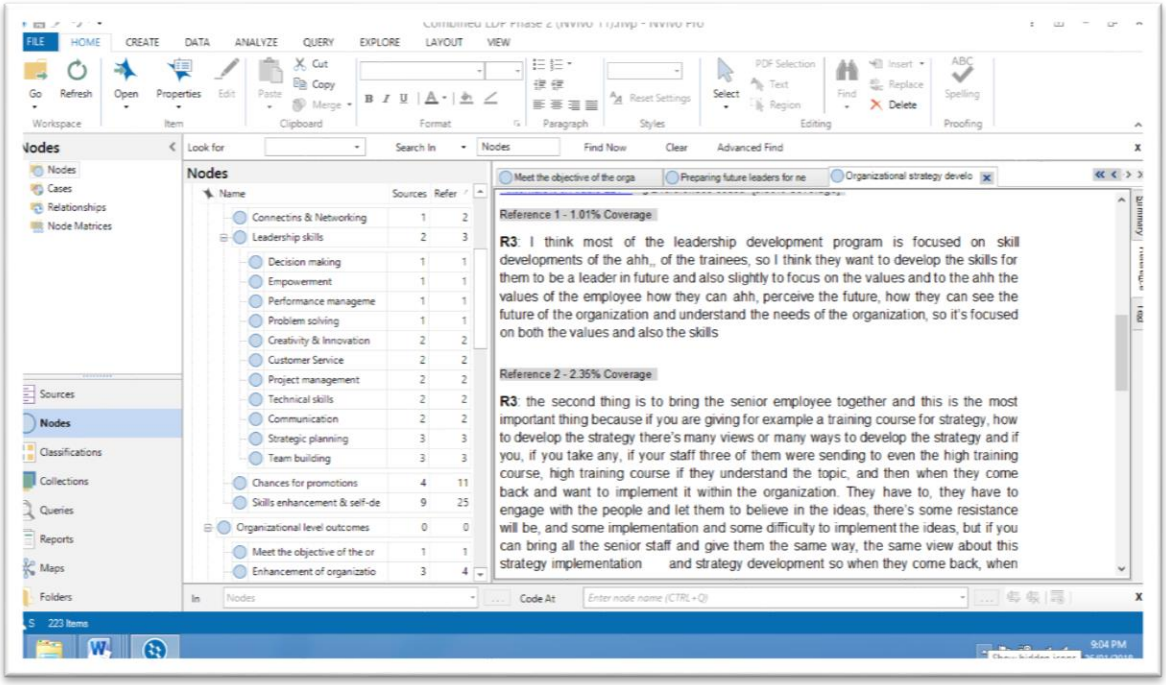
Phase (1): What are the conceptualisations of effective leadership in Dubai government organisations?





Phase (2): to identify what are the expected outcomes from LDPs and to identify contents and conceptualisation of LDPs as implemented in Dubai government organisations.





Appendix G

Learning Transfer Systems Inventory User's Agreement

Permission is hereby granted to use the Learning Transfer Systems Inventory (LTSI), an organizational assessment instrument, owned by Reid A. Bates and Ed Holton. Permission is granted to the following people for the timeframe, and purposes specified below:

Permission granted to: *(Name, company, address, phone number, e-mail, etc.)*	AMIRA KAMALI University of Wollongong in Dubai +97150/5534058 email: ms_kamali@hotmail.com
Purpose	LTSI will be used to measure the effectiveness of leadership development programs in Dubai goverment organizations
Time Period	2016 - 2017
Other Conditions	Attached is my comments of some of the conditions.

It is understood that, by agreeing to use the Learning Transfer Systems Inventory, you are accepting the following conditions:

1. Any use other than that specified above is prohibited without prior written authorization by the authors (R. A. Bates & E. F. Holton).
2. No changes whatsoever can be made to the LTSI without prior written consent of the authors.
3. The authors retain full copyright authority for the LTSI and any translations that are developed as a result of granting this permission. Every copy of the LTSI (paper or online) must carry the following copyright notice:

   ©Copyright 2012 Reid A. Bates and Elwood F. Holton III, all rights reserved

4. Discussion and presentation of the LTSI will accurately reflect the composition of the instrument and will use only original scale names and scale definitions.
5. In order to protect the proprietary nature of the LTSI neither item groupings nor scale scoring formulas will not be provided to users.

6. Users of the LTSI may not publish or otherwise disseminate into the public domain the survey items. This means the items or item groupings may **NOT** be included in thesis or dissertation documents unless authorized by the authors.

7. If the LTSI is to be translated into a new language as part of this project, the authors of the LTSI must be included in the translation process as per their supplemental instructions.

8. If one or both of the authors of the LTSI contribute in a meaningful way to data analysis or collection, conceptualizing a study, contributing to the writing of a manuscript or make any other substantive contributions to a manuscript submitted for publication then it is agreed that the contributing LTSI author will be included as a co-author on that manuscript.

9. A copy of all data collected with the instrument must be given to the authors free of charge and in a timely manner. This data will only be used for research purposes and will not be reported in such a manner that would identify individual organizations, without written permission of the organization.

10. The authors reserve the right to withdraw the LTSI from use at any time if any terms or conditions of this agreement are violated.

11. By signing this agreement, LTSI users acknowledge that the scoring algorithms will be retained by the authors and that the data collected with the LTSI must be submitted to the authors for scoring.

A copy of this Permission Agreement should be signed and returned to indicate your agreement with the above restrictions and conditions. A fully executed copy will be returned to you for your records. Upon receipt of the signed agreement and payment of any applicable royalty/license fee you will be sent a copy of the LTSI that you may reproduce.

LTSI user (print name) AMIRA KAMALI	
Title DBA Candidates	
LTSI user signature	Date 20th Oct. 2016
Elwood F. Holton III or Reid A. Bates, LTSI authors	Date

Appendix H

www.mindgarden.com

To whom it may concern,

This letter is to grant permission for the above named person to use the following copyright material for his/her thesis or dissertation research:

Instrument: *Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire*

Authors: *Bruce Avolio and Bernard Bass*

Copyright: *1995 by Bruce Avolio and Bernard Bass*

Five sample items from this instrument may be reproduced for inclusion in a proposal, thesis, or dissertation.

The entire instrument may not be included or reproduced at any time in any other published material.

Sincerely,

Robert Most
Mind Garden, Inc.
www.mindgarden.com

Appendix I

Questionnaire

Effectiveness of Leadership Development Program (LDPs) in Dubai Government organisations

Thank you for your participation in this study

Please ensure that you answer all questions

Please select the appropriate box when answering the background information questions.

Part (A): Demographic Information

1. Level of supervisory position:

a) Senior Management
b) Middle Management
c) First level supervisor

2. What is your total year of experience in the current organisation?

a) 1-4
b) 5-9
c) 10-14
d) 15 and Above

3. Gender:

a) Male
b) Female

4. What is your age?

a) 21-29
b) 30-39
c) 40-44
d) 45 and Above

5. What is your level of education?

a) High school graduate
b) Bachelor's degree
c) Master's degree
d) Doctoral degree
e) Other (Please specify)----------

Part (B) related to your participation across any type of leadership development programs

6. Did you attend any leadership development program between2012-2016?

a) Yes (If Yes, please go to question number 7)
b) No (If No, please go to Part C)

7. When did you attend the leadership development program?

a) 2012
b) 2013
c) 2014
d) 2015
e) 2016

8. Which leadership development programs have you attended?

a) Mohammed Bin Rashid School of Governance (MBRSG)
b) Mohammed Bin Rashid Centre of Leadership Development (MBRCLD)
c) Customized/other leadership development program

9. My main goal for engaging in this learning experience was …(check the one that best fits)

a) Personal growth/self-improvement
b) Upgrade skills
c) Acquire new skills
d) Promotion
e) Preparation for new career
f) Required to attend by employer
g) For interest only

Part (C): Please select the appropriate number with a (√ or X) to the right of each item that most closely reflects your opinion about training

1 - Strongly disagree 2 - Disagree 3 - Neither agree nor disagree 4 - Agree 5 - Strongly agree

#	Item	1	2	3	4	5
1	Prior to this training, I knew how the program was supposed to affect my performance.					
2	This training will increase my personal productivity.					
3	When I leave this training, I can't wait to get back to work to try what I learned.					
4	I believe this training will help me do my current job better.					
5	Successfully using this training will help me get a salary increase.					
6	If I use this training I am more likely to be rewarded.					
7	I am likely to receive some recognition if I use my newly learned skills on the job.					
8	Before this training, I had a good understanding of how it would fit my job-related development.					
9	I knew what to expect from this training before it began.					
10	I don't have time to try to use this training on my job.					
11	Trying to use this training will take too much energy away from my other work.					
12	Employees in this organisation will be penalized for not using what they have learned in this training.					
13	I will be able to try out this training on my job.					
14	There is too much happening at work right now for me to try to use this training.					
15	If I do not use new techniques taught in this training I will be reprimanded.					
16	If I do not utilize this training I will be cautioned about it.					
17	The resources needed to use what I learned in this training will be available to me.					
18	My colleagues will appreciate my using the new skills I learned in this training.					
19	My colleagues will encourage me to use the skills I have learned in this training					
20	At work, my colleagues will expect me to use what I learned in this training.					
21	My supervisor will meet with me regularly to work on problems I may be having in trying to use this training.					
22	My supervisor will meet with me to discuss ways to apply this training on the job.					
23	My supervisor will oppose the use of techniques I learned in this training.					
24	My supervisor will think I am being less effective when I use the techniques taught in this training.					
25	My supervisor will probably criticize this training when I get back to the job.					
26	My supervisor will help me set realistic goals for job					

	performance based on my training					
27	The instructional aids (equipment, illustrations, etc.) used in this training are very similar to real things I use on the job.					
28	The methods used in this training are very similar to how we do it on the job.					

1 - Strongly disagree 2 - Disagree 3 - Neither agree nor disagree
4 - Agree 5 - Strongly agree

#	**Item**	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
29	I like the way this training seems so much like my job.					
30	It is clear to me that the people conducting this training understand how I will use what I learn.					
31	The trainer(s) used lots of examples that showed me how I could use my learning on the job.					
32	The way the trainer(s) taught the material made me feel more confident I could apply it in my job.					
33	I will get opportunities to use this training on my job.					
34	My job performance improves when I use new things that I have learned.					
35	The harder I work at learning, the better I do my job.					
36	For the most part, the people who get rewarded around here are the ones that do something to deserve it.					
37	When I do things to improve my performance, good things happen to me.					
38	The more training I apply on my job, the better I do my job.					
39	My job is ideal for someone who likes to get rewarded when they do something really good.					
40	Experienced employees in my group ridicule others when they use techniques they learn in training.					
41	People in my group are not willing to put in the effort to change the way things are done.					
42	My workgroup is reluctant to try new ways of doing things.					
43	People often make suggestions about how I can improve my job performance.					
44	I get a lot of advice from others about how to do my job better.					
45	I never doubt my ability to use newly learned skills on the job.					
46	I am sure I can overcome obstacles on the job that hinder my use of new skills or knowledge.					
47	At work, I feel very confident using what I learned in training even in the face of difficult or taxing situations.					
48	People often tell me things to help me improve my job performance.					

Part (D): This questionnaire is to describe your leadership style as you perceive it. Please answer all items on this answer sheet. **If an item is irrelevant, or if you are unsure or do not know the answer, leave the answer blank.**

Forty-five descriptive statements are listed on the following pages. Judge how frequently each statement fits you. The word "others" may mean your peers, clients, direct reports, supervisors, and/or all of these individuals.

Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently, if not always
0	1	2	3	4

#	Items	1	2	3	4	5
1	I focus attention on irregularities, mistakes, exceptions, and deviations from standards					
2	I avoid getting involved when important issues arise					
3	I express confidence that goals will be achieved					
4	I help others to develop their strengths					
5	I express satisfaction when others meet expectations					

The rest of the items are removed for copyright purposes

Thank you for your participation!

Appendix J

Regression Models

Transfer effort-performance expectations

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	T	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	.099	.169		.588	.557		
	Ability	.171	.093	.169	1.838	.068	.296	3.384
	Motivation	.445	.082	.443	5.400	.000	.370	2.702
	Work Environment	.093	.077	.093	1.205	.230	.422	2.368
	Transformational Leadership	.193	.077	.200	2.516	.013	.395	2.531
	Transactional Leadership	-.069	.074	-.069	-.926	.356	.446	2.241
	Passive Avoidant Leadership	-.033	.052	-.033	-.645	.520	.937	1.067
	Top Management	.112	.194	.047	.577	.564	.376	2.661
	Middle Management	.021	.147	.010	.141	.888	.460	2.172
	Age 45 plus	.226	.326	.056	.694	.489	.379	2.636
	Age 40 to 44	-.228	.256	-.103	-.888	.376	.186	5.387
	Age 30 to 39	-.111	.228	-.056	-.487	.627	.190	5.256
	Gender	-.062	.107	-.031	-.581	.562	.878	1.139
	Experience 15 plus	.029	.221	.014	.130	.897	.219	4.572
	Experience 10 to 14	-.045	.193	-.022	-.232	.817	.270	3.708
	Postgrad	.044	.123	.021	.359	.720	.731	1.369
	MBRSG	.002	.119	.001	.020	.984	.754	1.326

a. Dependent Variable: Transfer Effort-Performance Expectations

Coefficients[a]

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	T	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
	B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
1 (Constant)	.004	.173		.021	.983		
Ability	.191	.092	.188	2.063	.041	.293	3.414
Motivation	.467	.082	.465	5.691	.000	.365	2.742
Work Environment	.072	.077	.072	.935	.351	.416	2.404
Transformational Leadership	.190	.076	.197	2.506	.013	.395	2.531
Transactional Leadership	-.054	.073	-.054	-.731	.466	.443	2.259
Passive Avoidant Leadership	-.039	.051	-.039	-.761	.448	.935	1.070
Top Management	.080	.192	.033	.414	.679	.374	2.676
Middle Management	-.020	.146	-.010	-.135	.893	.453	2.206
Age 45 plus	.257	.322	.064	.797	.426	.379	2.641
Age 40 to 44	-.148	.256	-.067	-.577	.565	.182	5.493
Age 30 to 39	-.036	.228	-.018	-.159	.874	.186	5.370
Gender	-.041	.106	-.020	-.385	.701	.871	1.149
Experience 15 plus	.016	.219	.008	.073	.942	.219	4.576
Experience 10 to 14	-.090	.192	-.045	-.470	.639	.267	3.749
Postgrad	.039	.121	.019	.324	.746	.730	1.369
MBRSG	-.009	.118	-.004	-.073	.942	.753	1.328
we_ability	.111	.049	.119	2.248	.026	.866	1.155

a. Dependent Variable: Transfer Effort-Performance Expectations

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	T	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	.040	.176		.225	.822		
	Ability	.177	.093	.175	1.903	.059	.295	3.394
	Motivation	.471	.085	.469	5.526	.000	.345	2.898
	Work Environment	.079	.078	.079	1.022	.308	.413	2.419
	Transformational Leadership	.188	.077	.195	2.453	.015	.394	2.538
	Transactional Leadership	-.059	.074	-.059	-.791	.430	.441	2.269
	Passive Avoidant Leadership	-.038	.052	-.038	-.734	.464	.931	1.074
	Top Management	.077	.196	.032	.393	.695	.367	2.724
	Middle Management	-.001	.148	.000	-.004	.997	.453	2.205
	Age 45 plus	.292	.330	.073	.886	.377	.368	2.715
	Age 40 to 44	-.139	.267	-.063	-.521	.603	.171	5.852
	Age 30 to 39	-.026	.239	-.013	-.109	.913	.173	5.783
	Gender	-.065	.107	-.032	-.606	.545	.877	1.140
	Experience 15 plus	.006	.222	.003	.029	.977	.217	4.606
	Experience 10 to 14	-.087	.196	-.043	-.445	.657	.261	3.837
	Postgrad	.035	.123	.017	.287	.775	.728	1.374
	MBRSG	-.002	.119	-.001	-.013	.990	.754	1.327
	we_motivation	.064	.055	.068	1.179	.240	.740	1.352

a. Dependent Variable: Transfer Effort-Performance Expectations

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	T	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	.081	.173		.469	.640		
	Ability	.176	.094	.174	1.880	.062	.292	3.430
	Motivation	.443	.083	.441	5.358	.000	.369	2.708
	Work Environment	.087	.078	.087	1.112	.268	.412	2.424
	Transformational Leadership	.211	.085	.219	2.480	.014	.321	3.118
	Transactional Leadership	-.069	.074	-.069	-.925	.356	.446	2.241
	Passive Avoidant Leadership	-.029	.052	-.029	-.560	.576	.916	1.092
	Top Management	.119	.194	.050	.611	.542	.374	2.675
	Middle Management	.024	.147	.012	.165	.869	.459	2.178
	Age 45 plus	.225	.326	.056	.690	.491	.379	2.636
	Age 40 to 44	-.230	.257	-.104	-.897	.371	.186	5.390
	Age 30 to 39	-.110	.229	-.055	-.480	.632	.190	5.257
	Gender	-.066	.107	-.033	-.620	.536	.871	1.148
	Experience 15 plus	.038	.222	.018	.171	.864	.217	4.605
	Experience 10 to 14	-.042	.194	-.021	-.217	.829	.269	3.711
	Postgrad	.036	.124	.017	.294	.769	.720	1.389
	MBRSG	.013	.121	.006	.104	.917	.733	1.365
	trans_ability	.026	.052	.032	.503	.616	.616	1.623

a. Dependent Variable: Transfer Effort-Performance Expectations

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients			Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta	T	Sig.	Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	.113	.173		.652	.515		
	Ability	.167	.094	.165	1.778	.077	.292	3.428
	Motivation	.447	.083	.446	5.400	.000	.367	2.724
	Work Environment	.097	.078	.097	1.248	.214	.412	2.429
	Transformational Leadership	.178	.086	.184	2.072	.040	.316	3.164
	Transactional Leadership	-.069	.074	-.069	-.924	.357	.446	2.241
	Passive Avoidant Leadership	-.036	.052	-.036	-.689	.492	.920	1.087
	Top Management	.109	.194	.046	.562	.575	.375	2.665
	Middle Management	.017	.148	.008	.112	.911	.458	2.184
	Age 45 plus	.226	.326	.056	.693	.489	.379	2.636
	Age 40 to 44	-.225	.257	-.102	-.874	.383	.185	5.392
	Age 30 to 39	-.110	.229	-.055	-.481	.631	.190	5.257
	Gender	-.058	.107	-.029	-.543	.588	.871	1.148
	Experience 15 plus	.022	.222	.011	.100	.920	.218	4.597
	Experience 10 to 14	-.048	.194	-.024	-.247	.805	.269	3.714
	Postgrad	.047	.123	.023	.386	.700	.727	1.376
	MBRSG	-.006	.122	-.003	-.050	.960	.730	1.370
	trans_motivation	-.018	.047	-.024	-.386	.700	.625	1.601

a. Dependent Variable: Transfer Effort-Performance Expectatoins

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	T	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	.114	.173		.658	.511		
	Ability	.168	.094	.166	1.793	.075	.293	3.407
	Motivation	.449	.083	.447	5.399	.000	.365	2.743
	Work Environment	.096	.077	.096	1.240	.217	.417	2.396
	Transformational Leadership	.180	.083	.187	2.179	.031	.341	2.929
	Transactional Leadership	-.070	.074	-.071	-.946	.346	.445	2.248
	Passive Avoidant Leadership	-.035	.052	-.035	-.674	.501	.931	1.074
	Top Management	.100	.196	.042	.509	.611	.368	2.718
	Middle Management	.015	.148	.007	.100	.920	.456	2.192
	Age 45 plus	.227	.326	.057	.697	.487	.379	2.636
	Age 40 to 44	-.234	.257	-.106	-.908	.365	.185	5.404
	Age 30 to 39	-.119	.230	-.060	-.517	.605	.189	5.289
	Gender	-.058	.107	-.029	-.545	.587	.872	1.147
	Experience 15 plus	.034	.222	.016	.151	.880	.218	4.585
	Experience 10 to 14	-.039	.194	-.019	-.200	.842	.268	3.728
	Postgrad	.051	.124	.025	.415	.679	.716	1.398
	MBRSG	-.004	.121	-.002	-.035	.972	.742	1.348
	trans_we	-.025	.060	-.025	-.420	.675	.689	1.452

a. Dependent Variable: Transfer Effort-Performance Expectatoins

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	T	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	.104	.173		.599	.550		
	Ability	.170	.094	.168	1.811	.072	.292	3.420
	Motivation	.444	.083	.443	5.383	.000	.370	2.703
	Work Environment	.094	.077	.094	1.207	.229	.418	2.393
	Transformational Leadership	.191	.079	.198	2.423	.016	.376	2.656
	Transactional Leadership	-.070	.075	-.070	-.932	.353	.439	2.279
	Passive Avoidant Leadership	-.034	.052	-.034	-.653	.514	.920	1.087
	Top Management	.110	.194	.046	.568	.570	.375	2.669
	Middle Management	.021	.147	.011	.143	.886	.460	2.174
	Age 45 plus	.226	.327	.056	.691	.490	.379	2.636
	Age 40 to 44	-.228	.257	-.103	-.889	.375	.186	5.390
	Age 30 to 39	-.112	.229	-.056	-.488	.626	.190	5.258
	Gender	-.062	.107	-.031	-.581	.562	.877	1.140
	Experience 15 plus	.026	.222	.013	.119	.905	.217	4.602
	Management 10 to 14	-.046	.194	-.023	-.239	.811	.269	3.724
	Postgrad	.045	.123	.022	.367	.714	.726	1.377
	MBRSG	.000	.121	.000	.002	.999	.738	1.355
	tranc_ability	-.006	.049	-.007	-.122	.903	.731	1.368

a. Dependent Variable: Transfer Effort-Performance Expectations

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	T	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	.115	.173		.664	.507		
	Ability	.166	.094	.164	1.774	.078	.292	3.423
	Motivation	.445	.083	.444	5.394	.000	.370	2.703
	Work Environment	.096	.077	.096	1.244	.215	.418	2.395
	Transformational Leadership	.182	.080	.189	2.281	.024	.364	2.746
	Transactional Leadership	-.070	.074	-.071	-.948	.344	.445	2.248
	Passive Avoidant Leadership	-.036	.052	-.036	-.699	.486	.920	1.087
	Top Management	.112	.194	.047	.579	.563	.376	2.662
	Middle Management	.022	.147	.011	.152	.880	.460	2.174
	Age 45 plus	.227	.326	.057	.697	.487	.379	2.636
	Age 40 to 44	-.224	.257	-.101	-.873	.384	.185	5.392
	Age 30 to 39	-.110	.229	-.055	-.478	.633	.190	5.257
	Gender	-.061	.107	-.031	-.573	.568	.877	1.140
	Experience 15 plus	.016	.223	.008	.071	.944	.215	4.645
	Experience 10 to 14	-.053	.195	-.026	-.272	.786	.268	3.737
	Postgrad	.044	.123	.021	.356	.723	.731	1.369
	MBRSG	-.005	.121	-.003	-.044	.965	.740	1.352
	tranc_motivation	-.021	.046	-.027	-.460	.646	.745	1.342

a. Dependent Variable: Transfer Effort-Performance Expectations

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	.119	.170		.702	.484		
	Ability	.163	.093	.161	1.746	.083	.294	3.406
	Motivation	.446	.082	.444	5.417	.000	.370	2.703
	Work Environment	.104	.078	.104	1.344	.181	.414	2.414
	Transformational Leadership	.173	.079	.179	2.201	.029	.375	2.670
	Transactional Leadership	-.077	.074	-.077	-1.030	.304	.442	2.263
	Passive Avoidant Leadership	-.041	.052	-.041	-.792	.430	.919	1.089
	Top Management	.105	.193	.044	.544	.587	.375	2.664
	Middle Management	.023	.147	.011	.154	.878	.460	2.173
	Age 45 plus	.228	.325	.057	.701	.484	.379	2.636
	Age 40 to 44	-.240	.256	-.109	-.936	.350	.185	5.397
	Age 30 to 39	-.120	.228	-.060	-.526	.599	.190	5.262
	Gender	-.059	.107	-.029	-.550	.583	.877	1.140
	Experience 15 plus	.023	.221	.011	.104	.918	.219	4.575
	Experience 10 to 14	-.044	.193	-.022	-.227	.821	.270	3.708
	Postgrad	.054	.123	.026	.444	.658	.726	1.377
	MBRSG	-.005	.120	-.002	-.038	.969	.752	1.330
	tranc_we	-.062	.056	-.062	-1.098	.274	.790	1.265

a. Dependent Variable: Transfer Effort-Performance Expectations

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	.101	.169		.595	.553		
	Ability	.160	.095	.158	1.692	.092	.287	3.488
	Motivation	.450	.083	.449	5.432	.000	.366	2.731
	Work Environment	.104	.079	.104	1.322	.188	.401	2.493
	Transformational Leadership	.192	.077	.199	2.507	.013	.395	2.531
	Transactional Leadership	-.071	.074	-.072	-.961	.338	.445	2.248
	Passive Avoidant Leadership	-.033	.052	-.033	-.631	.529	.936	1.068
	Top Management	.114	.194	.048	.588	.557	.376	2.662
	Middle Management	.013	.148	.006	.087	.931	.457	2.186
	Age 45 plus	.226	.326	.056	.693	.489	.379	2.636
	Age 40 to 44	-.237	.257	-.107	-.923	.357	.185	5.404
	Age 30 to 39	-.109	.229	-.054	-.475	.636	.190	5.257
	Gender	-.065	.107	-.033	-.611	.542	.876	1.142
	Experience 15 plus	.035	.222	.017	.156	.876	.218	4.580
	Experience 10 to 14	-.038	.194	-.019	-.196	.845	.269	3.718
	Postgrad	.043	.123	.021	.353	.724	.731	1.369
	MBRSG	.002	.120	.001	.019	.985	.754	1.326
	pass_ability	-.038	.056	-.035	-.669	.504	.900	1.111

a. Dependent Variable: Transfer Effort-Performance Expectations

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	.095	.170		.560	.576		
	Ability	.168	.093	.166	1.802	.073	.295	3.394
	Motivation	.447	.083	.446	5.410	.000	.369	2.710
	Work Environment	.099	.078	.099	1.270	.206	.413	2.423
	Transformational Leadership	.193	.077	.200	2.518	.013	.395	2.531
	Transactional Leadership	-.071	.074	-.071	-.952	.342	.445	2.248
	Passive Avoidant Leadership	-.031	.052	-.031	-.595	.552	.930	1.075
	Top Management	.102	.195	.043	.521	.603	.372	2.686
	Middle Management	.008	.149	.004	.055	.956	.449	2.226
	Age 45 plus	.223	.326	.056	.684	.495	.379	2.637
	Age 40 to 44	-.235	.257	-.106	-.913	.362	.185	5.401
	Age 30 to 39	-.103	.229	-.051	-.447	.655	.189	5.281
	Gender	-.060	.107	-.030	-.565	.573	.877	1.140
	Experience 15 plus	.039	.222	.019	.174	.862	.217	4.604
	Experience 10 to 14	-.037	.194	-.019	-.193	.847	.268	3.726
	Postgrad	.047	.123	.022	.383	.702	.729	1.372
	MBRSG	.000	.120	.000	.003	.998	.754	1.327
	pass_motiv	-.029	.053	-.029	-.540	.590	.881	1.135

a. Dependent Variable: Transfer Effort-Performance Expectations

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	.099	.170		.587	.558		
	Ability	.170	.093	.168	1.817	.071	.294	3.401
	Motivation	.446	.083	.444	5.383	.000	.368	2.718
	Work Environment	.096	.080	.096	1.206	.230	.396	2.523
	Transformational Leadership	.193	.077	.200	2.512	.013	.395	2.531
	Transactional Leadership	-.070	.075	-.071	-.937	.350	.440	2.274
	Passive Avoidant Leadership	-.033	.052	-.033	-.632	.528	.934	1.071
	Top Management	.116	.195	.049	.592	.555	.371	2.699
	Middle Management	.021	.147	.011	.146	.884	.460	2.174
	Age 45 plus	.220	.328	.055	.672	.503	.376	2.662
	Age 40 to 44	-.232	.258	-.105	-.899	.370	.184	5.450
	Age 30 to 39	-.112	.229	-.056	-.487	.627	.190	5.256
	Gender	-.062	.107	-.031	-.578	.564	.878	1.140
	Experience 15 plus	.030	.222	.014	.133	.894	.219	4.575
	Experience 10 to 14	-.044	.194	-.022	-.227	.820	.270	3.710
	Postgrad	.044	.123	.021	.362	.718	.730	1.370
	MBRSG	.002	.120	.001	.013	.989	.753	1.328
	pass_we	-.010	.059	-.009	-.169	.866	.847	1.180

a. Dependent Variable: Transfer Effort-Performance Expectations

Performance Outcome Expectations

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	.126	.206		.614	.540		
	Ability	.191	.113	.188	1.690	.093	.296	3.384
	Motivation	.208	.100	.207	2.076	.039	.370	2.702
	Work Environment	.180	.093	.180	1.930	.055	.422	2.368
	Transformational Leadership	.015	.093	.016	.165	.869	.395	2.531
	Transactional Leadership	.076	.090	.076	.842	.401	.446	2.241
	Passive Avoidant Leadership	.074	.063	.074	1.186	.237	.937	1.067
	Top Management	.075	.235	.031	.317	.751	.376	2.661
	Middle Management	-.052	.179	-.026	-.292	.771	.460	2.172
	Age 45 plus	-.267	.396	-.066	-.675	.501	.379	2.636
	Age 40 to 44	-.353	.312	-.159	-1.133	.259	.186	5.387
	Age 30 to 39	-.144	.278	-.072	-.519	.604	.190	5.256
	Gender	-.069	.130	-.034	-.531	.596	.878	1.139
	Experience 15 plus	.094	.269	.045	.349	.728	.219	4.572
	Experience 10 to 14	-.087	.235	-.043	-.368	.713	.270	3.708
	Postgrad	.156	.149	.074	1.049	.295	.731	1.369
	MBRSG	.131	.145	.063	.906	.366	.754	1.326

a. Dependent Variable: Performance-Outcome Expectations

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	.036	.211		.170	.865		
	Ability	.210	.113	.206	1.855	.065	.293	3.414
	Motivation	.229	.100	.227	2.281	.024	.365	2.742
	Work Environment	.160	.094	.160	1.715	.088	.416	2.404
	Transformational Leadership	.013	.093	.013	.136	.892	.395	2.531
	Transactional Leadership	.090	.090	.090	1.000	.319	.443	2.259
	Passive Avoidant Leadership	.069	.062	.069	1.107	.270	.935	1.070
	Top Management	.044	.235	.019	.189	.850	.374	2.676
	Middle Management	-.090	.179	-.045	-.504	.615	.453	2.206
	Age 45 plus	-.238	.394	-.059	-.604	.547	.379	2.641
	Age 40 to 44	-.277	.313	-.125	-.887	.376	.182	5.493
	Age 30 to 39	-.074	.279	-.037	-.263	.793	.186	5.370
	Gender	-.049	.129	-.024	-.377	.706	.871	1.149
	Experience 15 plus	.082	.267	.039	.306	.760	.219	4.576
	Experience 10 to 14	-.130	.235	-.064	-.551	.582	.267	3.749
	Postgrad	.152	.148	.072	1.025	.307	.730	1.369
	MBRSG	.121	.145	.058	.838	.403	.753	1.328
	we_ability	.105	.060	.112	1.734	.085	.866	1.155

a. Dependent Variable: Performance-Outcome Expectations

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	.078	.215		.364	.716		
	Ability	.196	.113	.193	1.729	.086	.295	3.394
	Motivation	.229	.104	.227	2.203	.029	.345	2.898
	Work Environment	.170	.095	.169	1.795	.074	.413	2.419
	Transformational Leadership	.012	.093	.012	.124	.902	.394	2.538
	Transactional Leadership	.084	.091	.084	.922	.358	.441	2.269
	Passive Avoidant Leadership	.071	.063	.070	1.122	.263	.931	1.074
	Top Management	.047	.238	.020	.196	.845	.367	2.724
	Middle Management	-.069	.180	-.035	-.384	.702	.453	2.205
	Age 45 plus	-.214	.402	-.053	-.532	.595	.368	2.715
	Age 40 to 44	-.282	.325	-.127	-.867	.387	.171	5.852
	Age 30 to 39	-.076	.292	-.038	-.260	.795	.173	5.783
	Gender	-.071	.130	-.035	-.547	.585	.877	1.140
	Experience 15 plus	.076	.270	.037	.282	.779	.217	4.606
	Experience 10 to 14	-.121	.239	-.060	-.504	.615	.261	3.837
	Postgrad	.149	.149	.071	.999	.319	.728	1.374
	MBRSG	.128	.145	.062	.883	.379	.754	1.327
	we_motivation	.051	.066	.055	.775	.439	.740	1.352

a. Dependent Variable: Performance-Outcome Expectations

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	.092	.211		.435	.664		
	Ability	.201	.114	.198	1.767	.079	.292	3.430
	Motivation	.204	.100	.203	2.034	.043	.369	2.708
	Work Environment	.169	.095	.168	1.786	.076	.412	2.424
	Transformational Leadership	.051	.103	.052	.490	.625	.321	3.118
	Transactional Leadership	.076	.090	.076	.841	.402	.446	2.241
	Passive Avoidant Leadership	.082	.064	.082	1.290	.199	.916	1.092
	Top Management	.088	.236	.037	.373	.709	.374	2.675
	Middle Management	-.045	.179	-.023	-.253	.801	.459	2.178
	Age 45 plus	-.269	.396	-.067	-.678	.499	.379	2.636
	Age 40 to 44	-.358	.312	-.162	-1.149	.252	.186	5.390
	Age 30 to 39	-.142	.278	-.071	-.509	.611	.190	5.257
	Gender	-.077	.130	-.039	-.595	.553	.871	1.148
	Experience 15 plus	.112	.270	.054	.414	.680	.217	4.605
	Experience 10 to 14	-.081	.235	-.040	-.344	.731	.269	3.711
	Postgrad	.142	.150	.067	.945	.346	.720	1.389
	MBRSG	.151	.147	.073	1.024	.307	.733	1.365
	trans_ability	.050	.064	.061	.786	.433	.616	1.623

a. Dependent Variable: Performance-Outcome Expectations

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	.150	.210		.715	.476		
	Ability	.184	.114	.181	1.610	.109	.292	3.428
	Motivation	.213	.101	.212	2.115	.036	.367	2.724
	Work Environment	.189	.095	.188	1.993	.048	.412	2.429
	Transformational Leadership	-.011	.104	-.012	-.110	.912	.316	3.164
	Transactional Leadership	.076	.090	.076	.841	.401	.446	2.241
	Passive Avoidant Leadership	.069	.063	.069	1.096	.275	.920	1.087
	Top Management	.070	.236	.029	.297	.767	.375	2.665
	Middle Management	-.060	.179	-.030	-.333	.740	.458	2.184
	Age 45 plus	-.267	.397	-.066	-.672	.502	.379	2.636
	Age 40 to 44	-.347	.312	-.157	-1.112	.268	.185	5.392
	Age 30 to 39	-.142	.278	-.071	-.511	.610	.190	5.257
	Gender	-.062	.130	-.031	-.478	.634	.871	1.148
	Experience 15 plus	.082	.270	.040	.305	.761	.218	4.597
	Experience 10 to 14	-.092	.236	-.046	-.391	.696	.269	3.714
	Postgrad	.163	.150	.077	1.087	.278	.727	1.376
	MBRSG	.116	.148	.056	.785	.433	.730	1.370
	trans_motivation	-.033	.057	-.044	-.576	.566	.625	1.601

a. Dependent Variable: Performance-Outcome Expectations

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	.087	.210		.415	.678		
	Ability	.200	.114	.197	1.762	.080	.293	3.407
	Motivation	.196	.101	.195	1.945	.053	.365	2.743
	Work Environment	.171	.094	.170	1.816	.071	.417	2.396
	Transformational Leadership	.050	.100	.052	.503	.615	.341	2.929
	Transactional Leadership	.080	.090	.081	.892	.373	.445	2.248
	Passive Avoidant Leadership	.079	.063	.079	1.257	.210	.931	1.074
	Top Management	.107	.238	.045	.451	.653	.368	2.718
	Middle Management	-.036	.179	-.018	-.200	.842	.456	2.192
	Age 45 plus	-.271	.396	-.067	-.685	.494	.379	2.636
	Age 40 to 44	-.337	.312	-.152	-1.078	.282	.185	5.404
	Age 30 to 39	-.123	.279	-.062	-.443	.659	.189	5.289
	Gender	-.079	.130	-.039	-.603	.547	.872	1.147
	Experience 15 plus	.080	.269	.039	.298	.766	.218	4.585
	Experience 10 to 14	-.103	.236	-.051	-.437	.662	.268	3.728
	Postgrad	.136	.151	.065	.902	.368	.716	1.398
	MBRSG	.150	.146	.072	1.021	.309	.742	1.348
	trans_we	.070	.073	.069	.949	.344	.689	1.452

a. Dependent Variable: Performance-Outcome Expectations

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	.192	.209		.918	.360		
	Ability	.173	.113	.170	1.526	.129	.292	3.420
	Motivation	.206	.100	.204	2.062	.041	.370	2.703
	Work Environment	.195	.094	.195	2.088	.038	.418	2.393
	Transformational Leadership	-.017	.095	-.018	-.179	.858	.376	2.656
	Transactional Leadership	.058	.090	.058	.638	.524	.439	2.279
	Passive Avoidant Leadership	.061	.063	.061	.970	.333	.920	1.087
	Top Management	.055	.235	.023	.236	.814	.375	2.669
	Middle Management	-.046	.178	-.023	-.257	.798	.460	2.174
	Age 45 plus	-.271	.394	-.067	-.688	.492	.379	2.636
	Age 40 to 44	-.365	.310	-.165	-1.175	.241	.186	5.390
	Age 30 to 39	-.153	.277	-.076	-.552	.582	.190	5.258
	Gender	-.071	.129	-.036	-.553	.581	.877	1.140
	Experience 15 plus	.060	.269	.029	.224	.823	.217	4.602
	Experience 10 to 14	-.111	.235	-.055	-.472	.637	.269	3.724
	Postgrad	.175	.149	.083	1.174	.242	.726	1.377
	MBRSG	.098	.146	.047	.671	.503	.738	1.355
	tranc_ability	-.092	.059	-.111	-1.569	.118	.731	1.368

a. Dependent Variable: Performance-Outcome Expectations

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	.207	.208		.998	.320		
	Ability	.166	.113	.164	1.476	.142	.292	3.423
	Motivation	.210	.099	.209	2.121	.035	.370	2.703
	Work Environment	.200	.093	.200	2.150	.033	.418	2.395
	Transformational Leadership	-.039	.096	-.041	-.410	.682	.364	2.746
	Transactional Leadership	.066	.089	.066	.737	.462	.445	2.248
	Passive Avoidant Leadership	.057	.063	.057	.916	.361	.920	1.087
	Top Management	.078	.233	.033	.335	.738	.376	2.662
	Middle Management	-.043	.177	-.022	-.245	.807	.460	2.174
	Age 45 plus	-.259	.393	-.064	-.660	.510	.379	2.636
	Age 40 to 44	-.335	.309	-.151	-1.083	.280	.185	5.392
	Age 30 to 39	-.135	.275	-.067	-.490	.624	.190	5.257
	Gender	-.065	.129	-.032	-.507	.613	.877	1.140
	Experience 15 plus	.025	.269	.012	.095	.925	.215	4.645
	Experience 10 to 14	-.129	.234	-.064	-.551	.583	.268	3.737
	Postgrad	.155	.148	.073	1.047	.297	.731	1.369
	MBRSG	.091	.145	.044	.624	.534	.740	1.352
	tranc_motivation	-.113	.055	-.141	-2.035	.043	.745	1.342

a. Dependent Variable: Performance-Outcome Expectations

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	.165	.206		.801	.424		
	Ability	.175	.113	.172	1.553	.122	.294	3.406
	Motivation	.210	.100	.209	2.111	.036	.370	2.703
	Work Environment	.203	.094	.202	2.165	.032	.414	2.414
	Transformational Leadership	-.023	.095	-.024	-.242	.809	.375	2.670
	Transactional Leadership	.060	.090	.061	.669	.504	.442	2.263
	Passive Avoidant Leadership	.059	.063	.059	.935	.351	.919	1.089
	Top Management	.062	.234	.026	.265	.791	.375	2.664
	Middle Management	-.048	.178	-.024	-.272	.786	.460	2.173
	Age 45 plus	-.263	.394	-.065	-.668	.505	.379	2.636
	Age 40 to 44	-.377	.310	-.170	-1.216	.226	.185	5.397
	Age 30 to 39	-.162	.276	-.081	-.585	.559	.190	5.262
	Gender	-.062	.129	-.031	-.484	.629	.877	1.140
	Experience 15 plus	.083	.267	.040	.309	.757	.219	4.575
	Experience 10 to 14	-.084	.234	-.042	-.361	.718	.270	3.708
	Postgrad	.177	.149	.084	1.190	.236	.726	1.377
	MBRSG	.118	.145	.057	.816	.416	.752	1.330
	tranc_we	-.120	.068	-.120	-1.767	.079	.790	1.265

a. Dependent Variable: Performance-Outcome Expectatoins

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	.129	.205		.629	.530		
	Ability	.166	.115	.164	1.450	.149	.287	3.488
	Motivation	.221	.100	.219	2.197	.029	.366	2.731
	Work Environment	.207	.096	.207	2.165	.032	.401	2.493
	Transformational Leadership	.014	.093	.015	.155	.877	.395	2.531
	Transactional Leadership	.070	.090	.070	.772	.441	.445	2.248
	Passive Avoidant Leadership	.076	.063	.076	1.212	.227	.936	1.068
	Top Management	.080	.235	.034	.341	.734	.376	2.662
	Middle Management	-.070	.179	-.035	-.392	.696	.457	2.186
	Age 45 plus	-.267	.395	-.066	-.676	.500	.379	2.636
	Age 40 to 44	-.375	.312	-.169	-1.203	.231	.185	5.404
	Age 30 to 39	-.138	.277	-.069	-.498	.619	.190	5.257
	Gender	-.077	.130	-.038	-.591	.555	.876	1.142
	Experience 15 plus	.108	.269	.052	.400	.689	.218	4.580
	Experience 10 to 14	-.071	.235	-.035	-.301	.764	.269	3.718
	Postgrad	.155	.149	.074	1.041	.299	.731	1.369
	MBRSG	.131	.145	.063	.905	.367	.754	1.326
	pass_ability	-.085	.068	-.080	-1.258	.210	.900	1.111

a. Dependent Variable: Performance-outcome Expectations

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	.114	.206		.556	.579		
	Ability	.184	.113	.181	1.623	.106	.295	3.394
	Motivation	.214	.100	.213	2.138	.034	.369	2.710
	Work Environment	.197	.094	.197	2.089	.038	.413	2.423
	Transformational Leadership	.017	.093	.017	.181	.856	.395	2.531
	Transactional Leadership	.070	.090	.071	.778	.438	.445	2.248
	Passive Avoidant Leadership	.081	.063	.080	1.284	.201	.930	1.075
	Top Management	.048	.236	.020	.202	.840	.372	2.686
	Middle Management	-.085	.181	-.043	-.473	.637	.449	2.226
	Age 45 plus	-.274	.396	-.068	-.693	.489	.379	2.637
	Age 40 to 44	-.372	.312	-.168	-1.193	.234	.185	5.401
	Age 30 to 39	-.121	.278	-.061	-.436	.664	.189	5.281
	Gender	-.065	.130	-.032	-.500	.618	.877	1.140
	Experience 15 plus	.120	.269	.058	.447	.655	.217	4.604
	Experience 10 to 14	-.067	.235	-.033	-.284	.777	.268	3.726
	Postgrad	.164	.149	.078	1.104	.271	.729	1.372
	MBRSG	.126	.145	.061	.869	.386	.754	1.327
	pass_motiv	-.077	.065	-.077	-1.188	.236	.881	1.135

a. Dependent Variable: Performance-Outcome Expectations

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	.126	.205		.615	.540		
	Ability	.180	.113	.177	1.592	.113	.294	3.401
	Motivation	.218	.100	.217	2.179	.031	.368	2.718
	Work Environment	.213	.096	.213	2.217	.028	.396	2.523
	Transformational Leadership	.017	.093	.018	.186	.852	.395	2.531
	Transactional Leadership	.061	.090	.061	.671	.503	.440	2.274
	Passive Avoidant Leadership	.080	.063	.079	1.268	.206	.934	1.071
	Top Management	.113	.236	.047	.479	.633	.371	2.699
	Middle Management	-.045	.178	-.022	-.251	.802	.460	2.174
	Age 45 plus	-.322	.397	-.080	-.810	.419	.376	2.662
	Age 40 to 44	-.399	.313	-.180	-1.277	.203	.184	5.450
	Age 30 to 39	-.148	.277	-.074	-.535	.593	.190	5.256
	Gender	-.067	.129	-.034	-.521	.603	.878	1.140
	Experience 15 plus	.103	.268	.050	.385	.701	.219	4.575
	Experience 10 to 14	-.079	.235	-.039	-.335	.738	.270	3.710
	Postgrad	.161	.149	.077	1.084	.280	.730	1.370
	MBRSG	.124	.145	.059	.854	.394	.753	1.328
	pass_we	-.099	.072	-.091	-1.384	.168	.847	1.180

a. Dependent Variable: Performance-Outcome Expectations